

# The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR  
READERS, STUDENTS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY

*Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine*

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## Annual Summary Statement of the Plans and Progress of The National Council for the Social Studies

### CONTENTS

	PAGE
The Plans of the National Council - - - - -	317
Finding List of Hopeful Undertakings - - - - -	321
Characteristic Elements of the Social Studies - - - - -	327
History: by Prof. Henry Johnson	
Government: by Prof. Edgar Dawson	
Economics: by Prof. L. C. Marshall	
Sociology: by Profs. R. L. Tinney and E. C. Hayes	
Geography: by Pres. W. W. Atwood	
Sociology: by Prof. F. H. Giddings	
Geography: by Prof. J. R. Smith	
Pennsylvania Program of the Social Studies, by Dr. J. Lynn Barnard - -	337
The Place of the Social Studies in the High Schools of Missouri, by Caroline E. Hartwig - - - - -	339
Progressive Tendencies of State History Teaching, by Harry L. Haun - -	342
The Present Status of State History Teaching in the Elementary Grades, by Harry L. Haun - - - - -	346
An Attainable Program of Social Studies for the High School, by Howard C. Hill	353
Teachers for Democracy, by Dean A. F. Lange - - - - -	356

Book Reviews, edited by Prof. J. M. Gambrill, 361; Recent Historical Publications, listed by Dr. C. A. Coulomb, 364; Historical Articles in Current Periodicals, listed by Dr. L. F. Stock, 365; Announcements of National Council for Social Studies, 367.

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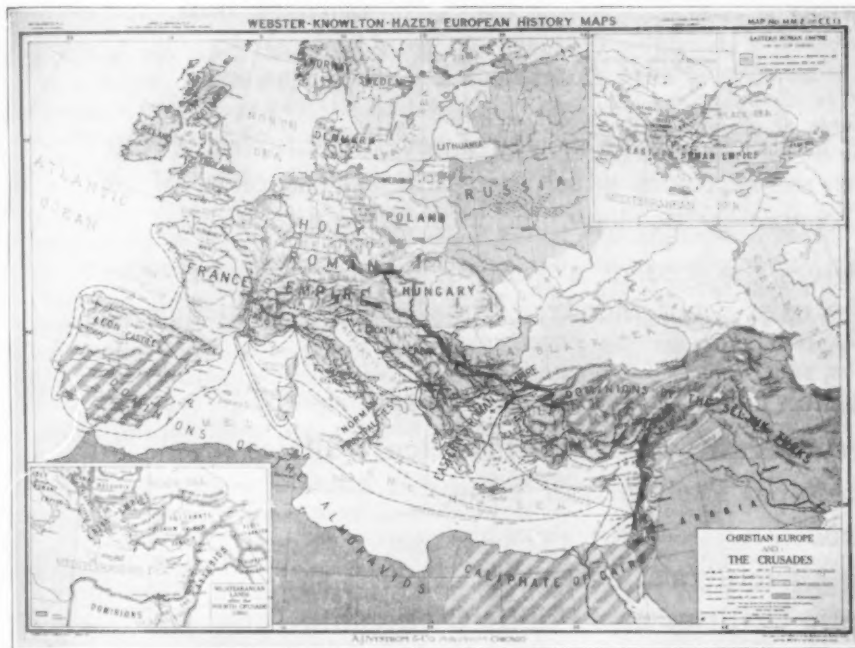
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## The Plans of the National Council for the Social Studies

The next annual meeting will take place in Cleveland, Ohio, at the time of the annual convention of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, about March 1, 1923. The program of the meeting will be published in the February number of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, and mailed to those who are not subscribers at about that time. It is hoped that a full meeting of the officers and members may then be had and that the plans of the organization may be fully discussed.

### TWO PROPOSED AMENDMENTS

Two amendments to the constitution will be proposed at Cleveland. They will be published in the February number of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* and mailed to those who are not subscribers. The following statement of them is made in the hope that all who have suggestions as to their advisability will communicate with the secretary at their earliest possible convenience. Some inquiry among the members seems to show that the amendments will be approved.

The proposed changes grow out of the problems incident to a cooperative movement based largely on the principle of federation. The purpose is to secure the more active participation in the work of the National Council of the associations which can contribute most directly and usefully to the work of the National Council; and to guard against any temptation to commit our organization to the endorsement of any immature or ill-considered schemes.

One amendment will provide that the present Advisory Board, with the officers elected at the regular annual meetings, shall constitute a Board of Directors and shall be expected to guide the policies of the National Council, devising ways and means for carrying out the policies. The other will provide that the statement of purpose in the constitution shall include a self-denying ordinance to the effect that it is *untra vires* of the National Council to endorse or advocate the endorsement of any single program of studies or method of teaching.

Members will be interested to know more fully why these amendments are proposed now.

The germ of the National Council was the idea that the teachers of the social studies should set up machinery through which to cooperate in developing their work. The need of such machinery had been felt for more than a decade. Out of it grew *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, formerly called the *History Teachers Magazine*. From it sprang efforts in the East, the Mississippi Valley, and California to create a national association of teachers. Since the charter

members of the National Council had no other notion than that of a cooperative exchange of information, the need of a self-denying ordinance did not occur to the first committee on a constitution.

With the germinal idea of mutual helpfulness went the secondary idea of federation as a method. There were already a number of associations which devoted a part of their energies to developing the social studies in the schools. Most of them looked upon this aspect of their work as secondary to the development of departments of university teaching and research. Since they were actuated by the natural impulse to secure for their several subjects separate recognition in the schools, they were working in many cases at cross-purposes, and wasting energy which was sadly needed to construct a better system of teaching. They, as university scholars, did not quite realize that in the schools the same group of teachers generally handled all of their subjects when these subjects were handled well and not relegated to filling up the programs of teachers who had no interest in them.

When the Advisory Board was created in the hope that associations of scholars would not hesitate to appoint advisers to guard the new movement against mistakes, it was found that a few of them took the matter of advising very seriously and feared that the appearance of their names in an advisory capacity would in some way commit them to what the National Council might do. The reason for asking the appointment of representative advisers was the wish to avoid picking persons from fields of scholarship with so narrow a vision that important bodies of opinion and stimulus might be neglected. Hand-picked advisers may be selected to advise anything that is wanted. The members of these established associations seemed to think that it was better for them either to stay out of the movement or to take an active part in its guidance.

The god-fathers of the National Council would at the outset have created such a Board of Directors as is now proposed if they had supposed it was possible to secure such active cooperation in the movement. The formulation of the proposed changes has grown out of the discussions in a Joint Commission of representatives of the associations, which was created in December, 1921, to consider the general problems of a cooperative effort for the social studies; but the changes have met with most hearty welcome from those who have been with the National Council from the beginning. The members of the Joint Commission believe that there is no doubt that the parent association from which they come will be willing to give active support to the National Council.

## THE MACHINERY AS PROPOSED

Under the revised constitution, the organization will be somewhat as follows, details to be worked out in the drafting of the amendments on the basis of suggestions received from the members who react to the present discussion:

1. A Board of Directors consisting of (a) five delegates from the associations of historians, political scientists, economists, sociologists, and geographers; (b) five from the organizations of elementary and secondary school principals, superintendents, specialists in educational research, and heads of normal schools; (c) five from the sectional associations of teachers of history and the other social studies in New England, the Middle States, the South, the Mississippi Valley, and the Pacific Coast; (d) and the officers elected by the members of the National Council at the regular annual meetings. In addition, it has been suggested two others be added to the Board of Directors. These are the editor of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, to present the problems of our journal; and a corresponding secretary whose duty it would be to ascertain and to report from time to time the progress in the social studies in other countries.

2. An Executive Committee, charged with the active direction of the affairs of the organization in carrying out the policies formulated by the Board of Directors, and consisting of the officers elected at the annual meetings and of such other Directors as the Board may designate. It is proposed that the committee consist of seven members.

3. In the interest of division of labor, the Board of Directors will probably find it advisable to set up standing committees on such problems of investigation as the objectives sought through the social studies; the materials available for use; the methods of instruction recommended in this field; and the training of teachers. The efforts of these and other committees will be unified through common responsibility to the Board of Directors.

4. The best results will not be attained if the work of the National Council is too highly centralized. It has been proposed that branches of the National Council be set up in all of the states. A number of the members are so much interested in the movement that groups have already been formed in some states. The time has passed for pronouncements from a central agency. What seems to be needed for the greatest progress is the evolution of methods through interchange of stimulus and information and a gradual growth of a unified plan. The proposals to set up state branches does not mean duplication of the present state organizations of teachers of history and other social studies where these already exist. Those local organizations now at work have shown themselves disposed to meet the National Council more than half way in such a policy as has been outlined above.

5. There are nearly five thousand teachers now engaged in an effort to perfect the teaching of Latin

in this country. Surely as large a number may be counted on for the social studies. Such a membership would mean one member in each state for each 20,000 of population. The state representatives who have been consulted believe that this number could soon be reached. Some expect to exceed the quota within a year.

6. Caution. It is of the greatest importance, in the interest of avoiding dogmatic pronouncements which will make for friction and confusion, that the work of our organization be kept to its proper channels—the collecting, systematic statement, and distributing of information. Every member will strengthen the movement by helping to keep these limits clearly in mind.

## THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK

Other similar organizations have found the establishment of a journal the first necessary step and the greatest difficulty in their enterprise. For such a movement, a journal is nothing more than the systematic and well organized periodical publication of such information as all of the members should have. The National Council has such a journal ready to hand.

This periodical was started more than a decade ago by Professor McKinley, now of the University of Pennsylvania, as his contribution to the cause of effective teaching. Its subscribers now number about five thousand, and it has the official recognition and support of the American Historical Association. Its name has indicated that it was mainly for history teachers because nearly all of the teachers of the social studies are classed as history teachers; but the editor has recognized from the beginning that the movement for the National Council is the best guarantee of the best development of all of the social studies. From the beginning, he has published material on civics, economics, geography, and sociology; and he will doubtless be only too glad to enter into any arrangement by which some of the responsibility and labor of maintaining the journal may be shifted from his shoulders. For a number of years he maintained it at a financial loss; while it is now about self-supporting, any educational journal of the constructively conservative sort must be thought of as a thing to be carried rather than as an asset in itself.

The editor has turned over the present issue to the National Council. It is the first of a series of annual numbers which will summarize the progress of the organization and of the social studies. This first effort in summarizing is of course no indication of what future ones will be when our committees are fully at work.

It is to be hoped that as many members of the National Council as can possibly do so will become regular subscribers to the journal. For them to do so will greatly increase their own equipment and will greatly lessen the burdens of the office of the secretary. If it should eventuate that all of the members become subscribers, the work of circularizing the members and making announcements to them would be reduced to a minimum.

### THE WORK OF THE ORGANIZATION

The organs of coöperation indicated above having been set up, the National Council can push its constructive work with vigor. Because of its splendid possibilities for service, its responsibilities are second to those of no organization engaged in educational or other enterprises. The time was never so ripe and may not be for many years so ripe again for the most thorough-going effort to make of teaching a real preparation for a democracy that avoids the dangers both of stagnant pessimism and of sentimental unintelligent confusion. Only the future can show whether the sinews of our present life are equal to the task.

The practical work of the National Council may be allocated into the following categories: (1) to inform the thinking public on the subject of education in the social studies; (2) to survey the present programs and practices in our fields in order that such assets as we have may be budgeted; (3) to discover and give currency to such constructively hopeful undertakings as promise to add to our assets. A few halting steps in each of these directions have already been taken.

#### 1. TO INFORM THE PUBLIC

Conferences on the social studies were held this year at the summer schools of about a score of the leading universities including Harvard, Columbia, Cornell, Chicago, Texas, Colorado, Syracuse, Oregon and Southern California. Some of the conferences were kept within the proportions of round-table discussions; others were attended by several hundred people. One to three took place at each university. Where there were three, at least one was a round-table discussion. At least a score of reports have been sent in, and other places may have accomplished something without reporting. From every place the report is that the effort was thoroughly useful and can be made much more so next year when our plans will be more thoroughly developed. This is but natural since at the summer school all of the types of persons are assembled who can contribute to the best development of education,—teachers, specialists in subject matter, and specialists in educational organization,—and this is one of the few occasions in which all of them are together for any extended period of time. It is likely that a hundred institutions will conduct conferences next year.

At the meetings of national, sectional, and local associations of teachers, the problems of the National Council have been presented. Thanks to the energy of Secretary H. E. Kidger, of the New England History Teachers Association, and Dr. C. D. Kingsley, of the Massachusetts Department of Education, a lively conference took place in Boston on July 6, when the National Education Association was in session. Many more invitations to present the plans of the National Council to state and local gatherings have come to the central office that could be accepted, but speakers have been available in a considerable number of cases in the East, Central and Western States. With the complete organization of coöperation with state agencies, none of these opportunities may be lost, and many more will be offered.

Newspapers and other journals, including particularly those devoted to education, have opened their pages with the greatest hospitality to our offerings. The Associated Press has carried announcements to all parts of the country, and most of the leading journals of education have published at least one statement of our hopes and expectations. It is most important for as many of us as can do so to exert ourselves in the direction of letting our undertaking be known to those whose duty it is to support us. To minimize the importance of our enterprise will be to betray the responsibilities imposed by our situation. The intelligent public is awake to the need of something being done in the direction in which we are working, but a sadly small proportion have any knowledge or vision on the subject.

#### 2. TO SURVEY WHAT WE ARE DOING

To organize and to awaken interest are important steps toward accomplishment; but they are not of primary importance. They do not accomplish anything constructive. The real work of the National Council is more serious than propaganda.

The most serious task of our organization is to bring about such an examination of our assets as to lay a foundation for development. The very process of such an examination will stimulate our minds and strengthen our determination to make our work worth while. There are those who will think of the proposed survey as an effort merely to collect facts; they will think we are doing the kind of work for which we could employ a statistical expert and forget him. Of course, we have no such limited purpose. As we work together in the determination of the bases of our efforts at education, our goal will become clear and the paths toward it will open and become definite. We shall be engaged in studying our field together.

The ground plan of the investigation will probably assume the following general outline:

- a. What ends are to be sought through the social studies?
- b. What materials are available for seeking these ends?
- c. What methods of handling the materials are used?
- d. How are teachers trained for using the methods in handling the materials?
- e. What hopeful undertakings are pioneers engaged in developing?

The first of these basic considerations is discussed elsewhere in this issue of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* under the title "Characteristic Elements of the Social Studies." There a first step is made toward determining why we teach history, government, economics, sociology, geography. One would like to know what are the aims and values of these subjects of study. The Joint Commission of representatives of learned societies is studying this problem, and it may be hoped that a statement from that authoritative source may be published in the next annual number of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*. One of the attacks which will be made on the report of the Joint Commission may grow out of a consideration of the question, are these



objectives worth while? Another will be, are they attainable? Those who are seriously interested in the social studies will deal patiently with the enormous difficulty in finding answers to these questions. After all, they may have to remain matters of opinion. In such matters reasonable compromise and adjustment must be resorted to by those who are engaged in a practical task.

Examination of the remaining basic considerations is less handicapped by the indefiniteness incident to working with mere opinions. Investigators may appeal to either of two sources of information. One is the appeal to such authoritative opinion as that of the Joint Commission. The other is to proceed by what we have come to call scientific methods. There are those who claim that the study of man in society is now no further ahead in its evolution than the natural sciences were in the Middle Ages,—in a period of dogmatism and superstition. If this is true, it is high time that we put our house in order for the new world.

We have been a little too content to rest our case in many matters which concern the National Council on positive statement. We have not taken the trouble to demonstrate where demonstration was possible. A little space must be used, even in this crowded issue of our journal, to illustrate what is here meant.

We have dogmatized no little about what is called the "socialized recitation." Surely there is no need to continue this if we can determine what our objectives are and devise a method of examining whether we have attained them. If we know whether a pupil has attained to what we are seeking, we can differentiate between those who have done so and those who have not. Where this is possible, we can show that those who follow one method of teaching have reached the goal and that others have not.

Elsewhere in this issue Miss Bessie L. Pierce describes an effort to isolate causes and results in this problem. She would be the last to claim that her small experiment have finally settled the matter; but she would probably say that if twenty-five such experiments were made in different places under one direction, this number might eliminate accidental elements and the personal equation to a sufficient extent to show whether it is better to conduct classes according to the socialized recitation or not. To conduct such an experiment would be to seek some of the information our organization needs.

There is no little dogmatic opinion that it is better to teach the principles of economics, government, and sociology in the last year of the high school in a composite course called "Problems of Democracy." Others aver that economics and government must each be given separate treatment in a half year of work. If we know what we are seeking through these subjects, and if we can find out whether pupils have profited in the direction we think they should profit; then we can divide a number of pupils into separate classes, place them under similar conditions, and find out which groups more successfully approach the ends

we aim at. The difference may not be great. If it is undiscoverable, then let us dogmatize no more; let us agree that one course is, as far as we can know, as good as the other.

Work in the social studies has suffered no little from confusion of ideas as to what it is possible to do with pupils in certain stages in their development. As scientifically trained a scholar as Professor Henry Johnson is engaged in what he believes is a demonstration that some things can be done with children in, say, the sixth grade of the school system which it has been common to claim could not be done. His demonstration will have no effect on some of those to whom he offers it. But those minds which are in the habit of being influenced by objective facts will be greatly served by such efforts as his.

Those who may object to "experimenting with children," may be reminded that all of the children who submit to such experiments are taught more thoroughly than are thousands of other pupils in "regular courses." All of the former follow methods which are advocated by a considerable group of reputable school authorities. The "experiment" means little more than careful planning and administration to the end that causes and effects may, within the limits of possibility, be isolated and kept constant. It may further be added that we shall not, at least at present, be able to reach results with the certainty of the natural sciences. All that is claimed is that the problem may be attacked in the scientific spirit.

Much of the information sought by the National Council may be collected by those who applying for the master's or doctor's degree without in any way weakening the standards of the universities. The paper contributed to this issue by Miss Hartwig is an abstract of a master's paper prepared at the University of Missouri, under the direction of Professor C. A. Ellwood. Unfortunately, the fact that the National Council cannot afford the expense of generous publication, some of the best of Miss Hartwig's paper had to be deleted. Studies resulting in similar comprehensive surveys in other states, or experiments in university or other high schools would be equally as useful as many theses now selected for dissertations. After all, the preparation of a dissertation is mainly a matter of training in scientific method.

### 3. THE FINDING LIST

It is necessary to say only a word here about the Finding List of Hopeful Undertakings which is discussed elsewhere in this issue. Under each of the five headings mentioned for the survey experiments are being conducted. There experiments should be listed and described with sufficient fullness for those who are interested in common efforts to find each other and cooperate. The work will be multiplied in usefulness if these experiments can be so organized that they will check each other to the end that accidental elements may be discounted and the essential matters placed in proper perspective.



No effort can be made in the pages of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* now to publish such a list with any degree of completeness, for space is not available. All that can be done is to illustrate a few of the kinds of information that will be useful. Such undertakings as that of Dr. R. F. Nyman in the Oakland, California, Technical High School to discover the results of pupil activity in civic training can be duplicated in many parts of the country and those who are working along parallel lines should be known to each other. Miss Stone and Miss Harford, of the University of California High School, supplied for this issue an interesting study of pupil self-government as a means of training in civics for which space is not yet available. Hundreds of schools are working along this line, but without the coöperation that will most rapidly bring results. Every member of the National Council can contribute to the completion of the Finding List, and it is hoped that the coming year may see the completion of a first edition of it.

#### THE SINEWS OF WAR

Ways and means of carrying on our work are yet to be worked out. Printers send in bills, and the United States Government has not made the postal service as free as the use of the highways. While the secretary is a typist who many years ago retired to the dignified leisure of a college professorship, he cannot write on more than one machine at a time and several are needed. If all members could become subscribers to *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* so that the cost of circularization and printing could be reduced

to a minimum, and if they could in addition pay annual dues of one dollar, the next secretary might be able to see his way forward. The officers of the organization will be glad to receive suggestions.

The membership now numbers a little less than a thousand, but the number is increasing steadily. A large majority are subscribers to the journal and so pay into the National Council fifty cents. About a third of the members, those not at present subscribing, pay one dollar. About a dozen have sent in from five to twenty-five dollars as contributions. Teachers should not feel obliged to make large contributions of money to this kind of a cause; but it may be that a large number will see their way clear to becoming members at three dollars a year, receiving the journal of their profession and contributing to the development of the work to which their lives are devoted.

The secretary believes that a younger and less burdened man should be selected for his post at the next annual meeting. This undertaking is important enough to take more of a man's time than can be given by one who is carrying the responsibilities of a large college department, several faculty committees, and a fairly heavy teaching program. Whoever is selected as secretary may command a third of the present secretary's time and depend on the fullest coöperation from one who believes that we have embarked on a journey that may lead to the most splendid achievements in modern education. After these first two years the books will be turned over to him without a deficit and he will find a body of workers earnest enough to cheer the heart of any public servant.

## Finding List of Hopeful Undertakings

The chief concrete task which the National Council has before it this year is to discover those persons and groups of persons who are seriously seeking to develop our work in the social studies. It is proposed to publish a Finding List of Hopeful Undertakings in which our assets will be budgeted against our liabilities of expectation to reach a definite body of objectives. Every reader of this paper is urged to assist in the completion of this task by sending to the secretary of the National Council all of the information in his knowledge which will aid in finding those who are at work, including the quiet workers who are often too busy to advertise their efforts.

The following paper is meant to serve no other purpose than to illustrate a few of the kinds of information that is sought for the Finding List. Other persons are doing work similar to that mentioned below; and still others are doubtless doing different kinds of things which in the end may be equally as useful as these. If the reader knows of any person who is doing strikingly good, not necessarily spectacular, work in any aspect of the social studies (organization of material, methods of teaching, training of teachers, or otherwise) he will serve all parties concerned by sending the name and address to the office of the National Council. In the search for

hopeful undertakings we must avoid minimizing the work of those whose personality or methods are disagreeable to us. They may be right and we may be wrong.

#### COURSES OF STUDY

In general the courses in the social studies all over the country now follow the recommendations of either the committees of the American Historical Association or those of the National Education Association. It is important that statistical information be available as to the present drift to or from these leading bodies of recommendations.

The reports of the committees of the American Historical Association<sup>1</sup> have been adopted in a large proportion of the schools, and have constituted the basis of the College Entrance Examination Board's papers. The reports of the committee of the National Education Association<sup>2</sup> have been largely of not completely adopted in a number of states, including Pennsylvania, New Jersey and Connecticut.

The work of both associations was done with the greatest possible care and thoroughness. In addition to sending out the usual questionnaires, the Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association conducted its investigation as follows:

"But to seek information through printed inter-

rogatories is always somewhat unsatisfactory; and the committee therefore used other means also. Steps were taken to secure full discussions in the different educational associations of the country, in order that many teachers might become interested in the work of the committee and give needful information, and in order that there might be a free interchange of opinion on some of the more important problems that called for solution. Discussions on some portions of our report have been held by the New England's History Teachers' Association, the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, The Michigan Schoolmasters' Club, the Round Table in History of the National Educational Association, and by other educational bodies, as well as at two meetings of the American Historical Association. Moreover, at various times in the past two years, different members of the committee have personally consulted teachers and talked the subject over with them. These efforts seem to demonstrate that we have not reached conclusions hastily, and that our report is not merely the expression of the theoretical aspirations of college professors who are unacquainted with the conditions of the secondary schools. It is in a very proper sense the result of careful examination and systematic inquiry concerning the secondary conditions of the country."

The committee of the National Education Association consisted not only of specialists in the social studies, but also of professors of education and school administrators. Its reports were prepared after equally careful study and investigation. Even when the report of 1916 was published, it was regarded as but a tentative expression issued for purposes of further criticism and evaluation. The most recent committee of the American Historical Association expressed itself in substantial agreement with the report of 1916, and other committees which are now at work are using it as a point of departure. The committee which prepared it is considering the advisability of thoroughly rewriting the report in the light of recent developments. They will welcome coöperation and will look to the National Council for help in finding those who can guide them on the basis of class-room experience.

The adoption and use of these different methods of organizing the social studies offer a sort of experimental enterprise. We do not know which system is better. Information is needed by those who are considering the adoption of one or the other, and it should be available through the office of the National Council. What are the reasons for changing from the one program to the other? Has the change produced the results expected? If not, what is the reason?

There is now a rather extended movement for a wholly new type of organization which will largely discard the older terminology,—history, civics, economics, geography, and work toward a single course in which the material and principles of all of these fields will be merged.

Professor L. C. Marshall, of the University of

Chicago, is engaged in preparing for the three grades of the Junior High School a body of material in line with the recommendations contained in "Social Studies in Secondary Education," a small volume<sup>4</sup> issued this year by the University of Chicago Press. The material will consist, when completed, of textbooks, collateral readings, and manuals for teachers. Some of it is already in print for distribution to those who are willing and able to offer helpful criticism; and it is being tested in actual classroom instruction. The material is characterized by a pretty complete departure from the usual texts in history or civics, being constructed with a view to a continuous course for the three years, and offering a closely organized body of development from the beginning of the seventh grade to the end of the ninth.

Dr. H. O. Rugg and others, at the Lincoln School of Teachers College, Columbia University, are experimenting with the organization of social studies for the Junior High School grades. Material is being drawn mainly from the fields of history, geography and civics, but additional material from economics, social ethics, sociology, etc., is included when this seems to be pertinent. In developing the course an effort has been made not to correlate these subjects, but to make of them one whole, well-rounded unit, viewing the subject matter as one body of closely related material. Integration rather than correlation is the goal set. The material in pamphlet form is being sent to a large number of schools for purposes of experimentation and evaluation.

Superintendent Carleton W. Washburne, of the Winnetka, Illinois, Schools, is organizing a fact course through the examination of eighteen periodicals covering the period 1905 to 1922. Through this examination over 75,000 items have been collected; and these have been organized for instruction, the process of organization being guided by class room tests of child reaction to the facts and by standard books of reference. Mr. Washburne says of the course:

"Its purpose is homely and definite in contrast to the rather general purposes of most social science courses. It does not consciously seek to show 'how people live together'; it does not attempt to train children to solve current social and political problems; it does not even try to cultivate the 'historical sense.' These purposes have a legitimate place. We are giving courses that cover some of them in our upper grades. The method of treatment of the fact material is influenced by them. But the purpose of the fact course itself is simply to make children familiar with those persons, places, and events which they are going to meet constantly in their conversation and reading."

Courses in current events are being given all over the country. Yet for one who wishes to learn something of the methods used and the results attained is often at a loss to know where to turn for information. D. C. Knowlton, January 19,<sup>10</sup> discusses the use of pictures in presenting this type of instruction; and J. L. Stockton, January 20, gives a record of an experiment in Wadleigh High School, New York.

The latter experimenting, extending over nearly a decade and involving thousands of pupils, is believed by Mr. Stockton to have been well worth while. In his paper he suggests means of improving the course.

This notion of a merging of subjects has taken hold even in the universities. Committee G of the American Association of University Professors has recently issued a report<sup>5</sup> in which it describes introductory university courses in fourteen of the leading universities of the country. Recommendations 16 and 17 of this report may be quoted.

"The Committee believes also that the purpose numbered 16—the endeavor to give the student a stimulating and intelligent interest in the main human problems of the present day—is of very great importance. It is to be noted that this is the dominant purpose in special initiatory Freshman courses already given at Amherst, Columbia ("Introduction to Contemporary Civilization"), Dartmouth ("Problems of Citizenship"), Leland Stanford, Missouri, Rutgers and Williams. We believe firmly that direct collegiate treatment of the problems of the present day constitutes an excellent method 'of increasing the intellectual interest and raising the intellectual standards of undergraduates.' And we believe that a course in which this is dominant should be given at the earliest practicable point in the undergraduate curriculum. But we do not feel that such a course has, for the typical undergraduate body, so specific a claim to presentation in the Freshman year as the two courses previously recommended.<sup>6</sup> If those two courses are to be given, it would hardly be possible or wise to introduce as well in the Freshman year a course on problems of the present day. Furthermore, such a course would yield better results to students who had previously taken the course in Thinking, recommended above, than to students who had not taken such a course. It seems to me, therefore, that the logical place for such a course is in the Sophomore year. In another portion of our General Report, of which General Report the Special Report now published forms a single portion, we shall return to the discussion of courses on problems of the present day, with the recommendation that such a course be given in the Sophomore year. . . .

"The purpose numbered 5 above—the endeavor to survey the historical background of contemporary civilization—appears, in courses now given at Columbia ("Introduction to Contemporary Civilization"), Missouri, Rutgers, and Williams, as accessory to the purpose discussed in the preceding paragraph. To the question of the extent to which this accessory purpose should receive embodiment in a course on problems of the present day, we shall return in the portion of our General Report referred to above. We may note here, however, that we should in general favor a marked limitation and subordination of the historical portion of such a course."

Those who object to such courses as these for the universities believe that adequate work of this kind can be done in the schools. Therefore we have for consideration the claim of one group of scholars that subjects should be kept separate in the schools, and

that of another group that recognizes the need of composite courses but recommend their relegation to the schools. These two positions by no means exhaust the catalogue, but they illustrate the problems which confront those who would seek the organization of courses in the social studies and the need of reserving judgment until a larger amount of information is at our disposal.

Several efforts have been made to secure recognition of the teaching of government in the organization of courses of study, but as yet with meagre result. A committee of the American Political Science Association published an extended report<sup>7</sup> after several years of painstaking study showing that instruction in the principles of political organization is almost wholly lacking. The appendix of this report, containing detailed reports from a score of states, is a mine of information on the common practice. A committee,<sup>8</sup> under the chairmanship of Superintendent William H. Maxwell of the New York City Schools, appointed by the National Municipal League, made a careful study of the teaching of city government. It reached the conclusion that at that time we did not know enough about what a city government should to make much progress with the teaching of it. Since then the study of municipal government has greatly progressed, but still a recent report of the schools of one of the largest cities calls attention to the failure to teach government there. Another committee of the American Political Science Association, under the chairmanship of Professor W. B. Munro, reported in 1921, after two years of work, confining itself to the twelfth year course. Its effect is yet to be determined.<sup>9</sup>

#### THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

Whatever method is followed in organizing the courses, no one who is acquainted with the educational situation will deny that it is a lamentable fact that no outstanding efforts are available for record here to train those who are to teach the social studies. Some discussion of our failure in this direction may be found in Bulletin 3, 1922, of the Bureau of Education, and in the May, 1922, issue of the HISTORICAL OUTLOOK.

One interesting undertaking may here be recorded. The University of California is seeking to organize a course in civic relations and ideals to meet the requirement of the state that all prospective teachers of any subject show that they have subjected themselves to such a course. The experiment is discussed on p. 356 of this issue. Since elementary school teachers are not specialists, but handle all subjects, it is apparent that the California experiment may be one way of securing some training in social studies for these teachers.

#### METHODS OF TEACHING

Not only are efforts being made to develop the course of study, but the methods of classroom teaching in our field are also under examination. Some consider discussion of methods of teaching too superficial for serious attention, believing that each teacher instinctively develops the best method for his own



use. But where so many thoughtful people believe that the technique of instruction is important enough for experimental research, it is the duty of the National Council to contribute to their efforts if it can do so through collecting information and facilitating its exchange.

In December 16<sup>10</sup> Miss F. M. Morehouse points out that there are at least fourteen distinct types of recitation, each taking many forms and many different degrees of difficulty, but clearly teachable in all stages of history instruction from the primary school through the university. Like the various ways of indicting lays, every one of them may be right.

"Among the types of organization that aim to emphasize education for the individual is the general plan known as Supervised Study. Direction of Study takes place now and then in every school; but supervised study means much more than occasional direction offers to pupils who require assistance. Supervised study is a daily undertaking. Every period of the day is organized for the purpose of directing the details of a learning process. Studying is regarded as working on a job under the direction of the superintendent of the shop. The hours wasted in ignorant haphazard, discouraging, and all too often unsuccessful home study are spent in class study where a wise teacher directs the learning of the new assignment and reduces to a minimum the difficulties encountered in mastering a topic or problem."<sup>11</sup>

Supervised study in the social studies is being made the subject of extended experiment in the high school of the University of Chicago under the direction of Professor R. M. Tryon, Mr. H. C. Hill and others. In this experiment the teachers of English are also coöperating with a view to determining in how far the social studies and English may be profitably handled jointly.

Discussion of the experience of others may be found in the files of the *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, as follows: Miss Hallie Farmer, February 19; A. S. Barr, January 21; Earle U. Rugg, April 20; F. W. Carrier, November 20; R. A. Mackie, May 19; M. E. Branum, March 20; R. W. Hatch, February 20; J. B. Lambert, October 22.

It is of the utmost importance, if the various types of recitation are going to be evaluated, that experimentation be conducted on a larger scale than has yet been attempted for the social studies.

Miss Bessie L. Pierce has made a beginning with a controlled experiment in the socialized recitation, which she discusses as follows:

"The most promising attempt to overcome the mechanical features inherent in the conventional question-and-answer method of recitation seems to lie in a socialized presentation of the subject-matter. A realization that the class period can provide for contacts similar to those of the workaday world of later life has led the educator to readjust his ideas of the possibilities of the recitation and to seek for ways in which to develop the social consciousness of the group. This has directed us away from the old

question-and-answer method, in which there is emphasis upon teacher-activity and a tendency toward pupil-passivity,—a method which gives opportunity for development to the one least needing it. The socialized plan of presenting subject-matter to the pupil seeks to avoid the usual results of the old plan, which results may be summarized as lack of interest in the pupil, slight absorption of the subject-matter, restlessness, and obviously very little group feeling.<sup>12</sup>

"Because of its social content, history and its allied subjects should be taught in the manner most productive of such development. There has been too much stress upon mere facts, with a disregard of the potential value of the social studies. The pupil should be trained to study the working of social phenomena in order to form the habit of making social judgments. He should be trained in tolerance and dispassionate opinions. In other words, he should be trained in socialization. At no time can this be tried with more tangible results than at the age of the high school boy and girl, for it is this impressionable period which affords the opportunity to teach the young boy and girl how to become functioning members of society.

"What then, should be the qualities of the socialized work which will distinguish it from the usual 'pounding-in-of-information' plan? In the first place each pupil should be made to feel his responsibility for the conduct of the class during the whole recitation hour. Herein is found the development of the community instinct as distinguished from an individualistic attitude. The pupil should feel himself an integral part of the group, should feel that it is his duty as well as his privilege to contribute to the fullest of his capacity and to use his influence to lead others to do likewise. He should be trained to assume the part of critic, though always in the spirit of good will. In the second place, there should be a development of self-expression and of individuality through the necessity of active participation for each person. Thirdly, the work should be so organized in the lesson assignment that the time lost in questioning in the ordinary recitation can be spent in class discussion. In the fourth place, the work should be so assigned that there will not be a departure from the matter in hand.

"Various forms of socialization have been tried by different teachers. The most common type is seen in the selection of a leader from the class who shall conduct the work. In other words, this leader is to serve as the teacher, questioning the students, acting as arbiter in disputes, serving as critic, and even in some instances assuming the rôle of disciplinarian. When this is done, some teachers feel that the class has become 'socialized.' However, it is doubtful whether this plan in itself makes for socialization, whether or not the elimination of the teacher is the chief requisite for the most effective socialized work. Cannot the teacher play an important, though unobtrusive part in its direction? It would seem that the process of socialization is not necessarily effected simply by the elimination of the teacher and the



selection of a pupil to carry out the ordinary functions of the teacher, but by other features of the recitation. After all, the teacher in any form of class work is an essential factor for success. In the working of the socialized recitation, the teacher is no longer the autocrat of the question-and-answer method, where she absorbs the greater part of the hour promoting discussion according to her developed attitude toward the work. On the other hand, by making her a mere spectator, the purpose of the recitation could not be fully accomplished. Theoretically, in the socialized work, the teacher may be very well considered a negligible factor, but actually this cannot be done. The organization of the class must be the pupils', the responsibility of well-doing must be theirs, the enthusiasm invoked must emanate from them, but the real pilot must be the teacher.

"Whatever the outward form of the socialization, it is the end attained which finally determines the efficacy of any plan; and that recitation may well be called 'socialized' which presents the subject-matter in a social form and is of immediate as well as of future value to the child. If the class is taken into the confidence of the teacher and the scheme is explained carefully and thoroughly, the average high school class will cooperate well, irrespective of the length of time in which they have been taught by other methods. The organization should be such that the machinery is simple and should work as though well oiled, but never in a purely mechanical manner.

"Charges against extreme socialization have been made with justice by its critics. Some socialized work leads to incessant talking by the pupils, to a disputatious attitude, to a tendency to wander from the subject-matter, to unnecessary noises, and to a monopoly of the recitation by the good pupils. These defects are much more common in the socialized plan where the teacher gives the reins entirely into the hands of a student leader than in one in which she exercises the function of leadership.

"The class procedure under the question-and-answer plan, however, is not free from certain defects which are often charged against the socialized type. Monopoly of discussion by the brightest might be common to both plans. If the teacher attempts to curtail the activity of the ambitious by leading on the more diffident by questions, a lack of interest is likely to result on the part of the better pupils. It would seem that this common defect can be obviated most easily in the socialized method in which the topical or problem form of assignment is pursued, granting much freedom in extensive preparation. Lack of spontaneity is surely more characteristic of that form of work in which the direction comes primarily from the teacher and not from the pupils. Alertness and activity are without doubt found to a far greater degree in a socialized form than in that where it is quite an easy thing for 'B' to sleep after 'A' has been called upon.

"The plan of socialization which the writer has found most productive of good has been to seat the class in such a manner that the pupils face each other,

two rows having their backs to the teacher's desk, and facing two other rows. This tends to make the pupils talk to each other and not to recite to the teacher only. Great care is taken in giving the assignments, first, in order that questions by the teacher, except for settling disputed points or clearing up mistakes, may be eliminated, and second, that it may serve as an outline from which the pupil may carry on his recitation. The class is directed to ask questions about doubtful points, to demand explanations for statements, to criticize, and to amplify statements. Occasionally the teacher does not ask a question throughout the hour, but at other times she finds it necessary to emphasize certain neglected phases of the work. She usually sits at her desk, taking very little part except to call upon people for contributions. Yet her unobtrusive presence serves as a stimulus and guide to the class, and seems to obviate many of the defects charged against some socialized plans. To cultivate a healthy rivalry, an alphabetical division of the class into two groups for the purpose of checking each other on recitations is made. Each group selects a leader who records the number of recitations made each week by each individual of the class and the report is posted on Friday, although the grade for the work done is determined by the teacher. The publicity of the number of recitations made by individuals, as well as the rivalry of the groups, aids in keeping the class alert and anxious to recite.

"In order to determine definitely the success or failure of the socialized plan, a group of pupils in eleventh grade American history was divided into two sections. The division was based upon mental tests, each receiving, so far as possible, pupils of equal mental capacity. No experiment of the character attempted can prove or disprove conclusively the value of any type of recitation, for it cannot record the personality of the teacher. However, an attempt was made to select two teachers of approximate equality in instructional ability. Another difficulty lay in the fact that all the pupils had hitherto been pursuing the socialized work and, hence, had been trained to respond in class-work with more readiness than is customary in the average question-and-answer plan.

"The data obtained represent a greater efficacy throughout for the socialized method. For twenty days the same work was pursued in both classes, three days being taken out for test periods. The class pursuing the question-and-answer plan adhered much more closely to the textbook plan than did the socialized section, who were instructed through a problematic form of assignment to increase their information by means of all available resources. At the end of the four-week period, the same fact examination, to test the extent of information imparted, was given in both groups, an average of 87.2-5 per cent being obtained by the socialized class and 70 per cent representing the average grade of the pupils in the question-and-answer method.<sup>13</sup> The sum total of minutes spent in oral recitation in the socialized group throughout the period recorded was 358 to 440

in the question-and-answer section. During this time, in the socialized division, questions asked by the teacher to elicit information or to develop a point were 40 to 416 in the opposite group. In the former group there were 182 recitations and in the latter 240, with an average daily attendance of 14 and 17 pupils respectively. The number of pupils failing to recite showed a startling result favorable to the socialized plan, being 8 to 110. The amount of participation of the teacher in the recitation in proportion to that of the pupil resulted in a ratio of 39 to 172 in the socialized to 416 to 226 in the question-and-answer class.<sup>14</sup> It is almost trite to remark upon the amount of time consumed by the teacher when the question method is pursued, yet it may be well to call attention to the fact that a good teacher asks at the rate of at least one question a minute and that a poor one would tend to ask several more in the same time."<sup>15</sup>

No general discussion can prove the superiority of the socialized recitation to the old question-and-answer plan as well as a comparison of stenographic<sup>16</sup> reports of the two types of work in the same school. Both classes were accustomed to a socialized method, yet one teacher, new in the school, felt that he must control the work visibly and that he could not get information from the pupils without frequent questions.

#### EXAMINATIONS

After the recitation comes the examination. It seems to be universally held that our methods of examining in the social studies completely miss the point, not testing at all the main purposes of instruction. This has been stated so often without contradiction that the time seems to have arrived for reform. Professor Henry Johnson's discussion of the conduct of examinations<sup>17</sup> has been echoed here and there, but neither in the Regents Examinations of the State of New York nor in the College Entrance Board Examinations, nor elsewhere, apparently does improvement seem to have been made.

Miss F. M. Morehouse, November 17; M. J. Burr, May 19; Miss Ellen L. Osgood, June 18; have discussed the problem to some extent. Earle U. Rugg, June 20, discusses the character and value of standardized tests in history.

One difficulty which confronts those who would develop better methods of examination is the fact that we are not clear as to the objectives we are seeking. We do not know, or rather we are not in agreement, as to what we are seeking; therefore we cannot settle upon a method of finding out whether we have accomplished it. As soon as the Joint Commission provides a sufficiently definite set of statements of our objectives, or as soon as we arrive at agreement through some other agency, we shall then be able to approach more rapidly the organization of our methods of examination.

In the meantime it is of the utmost importance for those who are experimenting in this problem, on either a small or a large scale, or who have ideas on the subject, to send them to our clearing house in order that an exchange of stimulus and suggestion may take place.

#### WHAT IS POSSIBLE?

The organization of courses of study, the preparation of material for the pupil's use, the development of class-room methods, encouragement of pupil activities, even the selection of attainable objectives,—all of these must after all be informed and influenced by a careful examination of what it is possible for pupils of certain ages to do. One hears much dogmatic pronouncement about what children of ten or fifteen years will find possible, but there has been little information collected on the subject.

Professor Henry Johnson, of Teachers College, Columbia University, has been engaged for a number of years in experiments in elementary and secondary schools to determine the range of possible and desirable training in such fundamentals of historical study as the sense of evidence, the sense of development and continuity, the sense of historical perspective and the historical sense in general. Tests of pupils without specific training in these fundamentals have yielded almost uniformly negative results from the first grade to the last year of the high school. Similar tests repeated after from four to six weeks of training have shown the same pupils exercising, without apparent strain upon their intelligence, powers which in the earlier tests they did not seem to possess. No account of these experiments has as yet been published.

<sup>14</sup>Committee of Seven, *The Study of History in the Schools*. Macmillan, 1909.

<sup>15</sup>Committee of Five, *The Study of History in Secondary Schools*, Macmillan, 1911.

<sup>16</sup>Committee of Eight, *The Study of History in the Elementary Schools*, Scribner's, 1911.

<sup>17</sup>Community Civics, Bulletin 23 for 1915, and Social Studies in Secondary Education, Bulletin 28 for 1916 of the National Bureau of Education, were prepared by the Committee on Social Studies of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association.

<sup>18</sup>Pages 5-6 of the Report.

<sup>19</sup>Prepared by a Commission of The Association of Collegiate Schools of Business of which Professor Marshall is Chairman.

<sup>20</sup>Bulletin of the Association for October, 1922.

<sup>21</sup>A course in thinking similar to courses offered in Columbia and Johns Hopkins; and a course in the Nature of Man and of the World, from the standpoint of natural science, offered at Dartmouth and in a part of the Columbia course.

<sup>22</sup>*The Teaching of Government*, Macmillan, 1916.

<sup>23</sup>Proceedings of the Conference for Good City Government, 1900 to 1905.

<sup>24</sup>THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, February, 1922.

<sup>25</sup>In the following paragraphs frequent reference will be made to papers which have appeared in the HISTORICAL OUTLOOK. "December 16" means THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK for December, 1916, etc.

<sup>26</sup>Quoted from Alfred E. Hall—Quest's introduction to Miss Mabel E. Simpson's "Supervised Study in American History," pp. 3-4.

<sup>27</sup>Republished from the University of Iowa Extension Bulletin No. 18.

<sup>28</sup>A disinterested person graded the papers, not the teachers of the groups.

<sup>29</sup>This was computed by comparing the number of questions asked with the responses by the pupils.

<sup>30</sup>Stevens, Romlett, *The Question as a Measure of Efficiency in Instruction*.

<sup>31</sup>These stenographic reports appeared in THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK for May, 1922.

<sup>32</sup>*The Teaching of History*, Chapter XVI.

# Characteristic Elements of the Social Studies

The following papers are but preliminary and tentative to a serious effort to determine what are the characteristic contributions of several fields of scholarship to teaching in the schools. A group of the leading specialists is engaged in formulating a statement which will doubtless be authoritative and finished.

Almost as soon as the movement for the National Council began to take shape, it became evident that such a statement must be secured. The officers of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland offered to devote one session of their annual meeting on May 6, 1922, to a discussion of the problem and invited the secretary of the National Council to solicit papers for discussion. An explanatory note, which will be found below, was prepared and sent to a number of persons in the effort to secure their coöperation. The statement for history was made by Professor Henry Johnson about whose equipment to make it nothing need be said. The president of the American Sociological Society secured from Professors R. L. Finney and E. C. Hayes, the committee of that association on relations with the schools, the statement for their subject. The statement for geography was supplied by President W. W. Atwood, then president of the National Council of Geography Teachers. Professor L. C. Marshall, chairman of the committee on economics in the schools of the American Economic Association, supplied the paper on economics. The secretary was unfortunate in not being able to secure a statement from one of the several leading political scientists to whom he applied, and was obliged to prepare the statement for that subject himself.

After the meeting of May 6, it was possible to supplement the statements for two of the subjects which have been under most discussion by reason of their not having been as fully recognized in secondary education as some of the others, with an addition point of view. Statements were therefore secured for geography from Professor J. Russell Smith and for sociology from Professor Franklin H. Giddings.<sup>1</sup>

Any discussion of the objectives in education is in danger of going to either of two extremes. It may move in the direction of such general aspirations or hopes that it will not help the practical mechanic in education who needs definite guidance; or it may be stimulated by such particularism of interest in single subjects that it cannot be built into the system of instruction. General statements are useful if they can be analyzed and are analyzed into their constituent elements in order that they may be adjusted to each other in organic unity. There is no general agreement as yet on the matter of the organization of a course of study in man's social relations. Therefore statements of objectives must be patiently dissected to their last detail in order to determine whether it is better to offer them to the pupils in the schools separately or in compounds. The time has passed for dogmatic statements about separate courses or

for merged ones. We must take time and use effort enough to decide on the basis of careful analysis of what it is we wish to accomplish.

<sup>1</sup> These statements are expository not controversial. Professor Giddings has not seen the statement of the other sociologists, and is not "answering" it.

## HISTORY

BY PROFESSOR HENRY JOHNSON

It is a fact of some significance that ever since the beginning of school instruction in history, about three hundred years ago, the reasons for teaching history have, with rare exceptions, preceded and determined the choice of the materials to be taught and the manner of teaching. The general result of this sequence has been to make of history in the schools anything that history seemed to be good for, from disconnected fables about things that never happened to an orderly story of actual human development. Just now in some quarters of the United States history is anything that history seems to be good for, with a vehemence of individual or racial or national or social or industrial or religious bias, an intolerance of any conflicting bias, and a violence in forcing a particular bias upon others, hitherto almost unknown in American discussions of history.

The pioneers of history teaching introduced another habit which still persists and is still the occasion of much confusion. History as anything that history is good for, must of course serve the particular end for which it was created. But, having established that, the creators have frequently taken the further step of claiming for their particular kind of history the special virtues of all other kinds of history. It was a misunderstanding of this condition which, some years before the war, led one of those numerous discoverers of the aimlessness of American education to count the various reasons alleged for teaching history. There were, he found, thirty-nine, and thirty-nine different reasons for teaching a single subject made, in his pedagogical aggregate just one reason for not teaching the subject at all.

There are in fact more than thirty-nine reasons for teaching history, but there are also more than thirty-nine varieties of history. The relation is necessarily intimate, since the reasons for teaching history have so generally determined the nature of the history to be taught. It is still legal, if not always moral, to make of history anything that may be required for direct and immediate use by individuals or races or nations or industrial or social or religious organizations, but it is time to stop arguing about history in general as something with essentially the same meaning for all sorts and conditions of men, including one-eyed educational reformers. There is no such history. There are only *kinds* of history, as many or as few as the needs and desires of our changing daily world may suggest.



It is legal, and I think entirely moral, to adopt our kind of history for this discussion, a conception now commonly held by historical scholars, and applied by those among them who write school textbooks in history, so far as public sentiment and the courage of publishers permit. The ruling idea of this kind of history is the idea of development. Every condition or event is viewed as a stage in a continuous process of becoming. Every condition or event is conceived as related to something that went before and to something that came after. In any series the importance of conditions and events is measured by the extent to which they help to represent and to explain some course of development. It may be the development of an individual, of a nation, of government, of religion, of education, of commerce, of cookery, of dressmaking, of children's toys—always it is development, a development that implies continuity, and a continuity that implies unity. The ideal, not yet attained and perhaps unattainable, is accurately to represent and adequately to explain the whole development of civilization.

Development, continuity, unity—these three words sum up the unique contribution of history to human knowledge of humanity through the ages and furnish a clue to the nature of what we call human progress. If they are true words, if we *are* in the midst of a continuous process of becoming, then history that traces development is an indispensable instrument for understanding our stage in the process, our changing customs, our changing institutions and ideals, our changing selves and other changing human beings now living and working in the world.

And if it is wise economy to seek as our controlling reason for teaching any subject that contribution which is unique, beyond the province of any other subject, and of fundamental, vital concern to human thought and action, then the controlling reason for teaching history is clear. History alone can convey impressions of development, of continuity, of unity, of that grand ceaseless process of becoming of which every human atom is a part, and history can thus teach us, in a way and to an extent possible for no other branch of human learning, whence we came, whither we are going, and what we ought to be and to do while we are going. Surely, such a contribution is a good, a sufficient, and a compelling reason for teaching throughout the school course the kind of history that traces development.

There is, I am well aware, a tradition, more or less consecrated by psychology, that the reasons for teaching history must vary with the stage of instruction, that they cannot be for a first grade in the elementary school what they may be for a senior class in the high school, and that such concepts as development, continuity, and unity can at best have little application below the college. This tradition is a near relative of that other tradition which holds that history cannot, like other school studies, be so graded as to present definite stages from the less to the more difficult. The general answer is that there are first steps in the kind of history that traces development

as simple and as near the direct experience of children of six as the first steps in any other kind of history or in any other kind of study. As for further steps, enough can be done, in rudimentary form, with the essentials involved to leave average children at the end of the eighth year of school life really feeling that history does describe and explain a continuous process, and ready to apply what they feel in their judgment of current conditions and events.

We must not read development abstractly. We must remember the possibility and the necessity of proceeding in school practice by means of concrete examples. We must provide conditions for definite, vivid impressions of actual human beings living together, commanding one another, serving one another, going to war together, making peace, organizing a church, supporting a school, constructing a government, petitioning for new laws, protesting against old laws, obeying or defying social conventions, striking for higher wages, seeking recreation and amusement. In this way any teacher of average skill may reasonably hope in time to convey definite impressions of what society as a whole has been and is in its continuous process of becoming and of what some at least of the causes and consequences of social action are.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> A fuller statement of Professor Johnson's views may be found in Chapter III, "Aims and Values," of his book "The Teaching of History". Other statements bearing on this question may be found in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* for June, 1916.

## GOVERNMENT

BY PROFESSOR EDGAR DAWSON

1. The following paper is addressed to students of education and of history, economics, sociology, and geography, who are engaged in determining what the several fields of scholarship, which contribute to the social studies have to offer to the curriculum-maker. It is a tentative statement, made for purposes of discussion and evaluation, of what one teacher of government suggests as a part of the contribution of the study of politics.

2. By way of introduction and for initial definiteness, it may be said that all study of government is a study of organization; and that all organization is a matter of rules and rulers, of the nature of law and the nature of its administration; and that organization for democracy, as distinguished from other organizations, must stress the differentia that this organization must be adjusted to prevailing public opinion and human character *as at the time developed*.

3. The difference between one who has been really educated in the art of politics and the one who has not is that the former respects real law, looks forward to the time when it can be administered justly, and seeks such organization as will bring about a due adjustment of the legislative process to the character and opinion of those who live under the laws enacted. Those who would put the teaching of government into the schools must put in somewhere and somehow an arrangement which will result in the rising gen-



eration understanding and willing a rule of law and seeking such administration of the law that the community shall be served. The rising citizen must think in terms of an organized society, guided by general rules, enacted and administered in the common interest.

4. Those who are not so educated tend to retain the primitive instincts which result in anarchy, or special privilege, or devotion to bureaucratic paternalistic monarchy in their impatience of legal process due to their ignorance of the nature of real and permanent progress. The anarchist differs from the democrat in that he distrusts organization and a rule through organized enforcement of the will of the majority. The devotee of special privilege differs from the democrat in that he is impatient of the gradual adjustment of the law and its administration to human character and opinion as thus far evolved and educated. All of these primitive instincts must be educated out if civilization is to go forward.

5. In the teaching of organization, it is necessary that there be implanted in the minds of pupils the nature of law; the best plans as yet evolved for the enactment of law; and the best principles for the enforcement of law. But the growing mind must also be introduced to the unsolved problems and shown that they are *unsolved*: what are the wise limits to home rule, to centralization, to paternalism; what is meant by public opinion; what are some of the limits imposed by human character in the year 1922. They must also be trained in patience with public action and the social process; and optimism for the future of democracy in so far as optimism may be a matter of reason. All of these are ways of dealing with the idea of organization as limited by human psychology or character or behavior.

6. This is no place for an attempt to define political science. The curious are referred to Professor J. W. Garner's Introduction to Political Science, Chapter I. But it seems clear that the art of government deals with two definite problems: the one is a question of scientific management, the other is one of human behavior. These two are closely interrelated. Teaching government is not a matter merely of description of governments or theories as to its origin as an end, important as these are as ancillary to the student and promoter of political science. The art of politics is a matter of the relation between getting the work of the community done and the adjustment of the best methods of doing it to the peculiarities of the voters. Those who teach even the elements of this subject must have these two considerations always in view.

7. Can government be taught in the elementary grades? The present writer ventures on an answer with the greatest hesitation but answers "yes." The basis of government is honesty, intelligence, industry, and willingness to merge one's welfare in that of one's fellows. To train for the first three of these is no more the duty of the teacher of government than of other teachers. The last is directly related to the teaching of government with democracy in

view. We do not refer to a flabby and sentimental willingness; nor to a self-denying and pacifist willingness. Reference is to a conscious part in a coöperative enterprise of law, order and public service. To develop this trait is to teach government, though no ruler's name is memorized and no state is ever mentioned. Without this trait all talk of democracy is but sounding brass and tinkling cymbal. It is a sham. What may be added in the first six grades to this training the expert in education must determine.

8. Can the principles of scientific organization be taught in the high school? If they cannot they are not democratic, for the graduates of the high schools are the people on whom the community must depend, and a large majority of them will never be introduced to these principles if they are not introduced in the high schools. It would be preposterous to say that the hundreds of men and women who as political scientists have been devoting their lives to the study of organizing society for a rule of law have reached no generalizations which are worth communicating to the rising generations now being trained in our high schools. The pupils are there introduced to the principles of chemistry and mathematics; they can also be introduced to the rules and limits of human organization.

9. It is of course necessary for the teacher of government in the schools to teach such of the present facts of government as is possible in order to orient the rising voter in his present political environment; but no one can teach the charters of some of our cities without digging into a hopeless mess of confusion unless he associates with such charters the principles incorporated in such a document as the model city charter of the National Municipal League for the sake of constructive, as opposed to merely destructive, criticism. No one can teach our state constitution profitably without associating with this teaching such constructive thought as is being incorporated in the model state constitution now under preparation. These documents present the principles of political organization,—of adjustment to public opinion and character.

10. The teaching of government then is training the young in the *principles* of organization in so far as these have been worked out, and in the patient recognition of the *present character of men* as determining what type of organization is possible. The elementary ground work for such teaching is training the youngest pupils in a realization that democracy means merging one's welfare in that of the group through a due submission to the rules of the community and those who administer these rules; and an enlightened participation in the efforts to make our public organization called government a useful institution.

## ECONOMICS

BY PROFESSOR L. C. MARSHALL

The appropriate contribution of economics to social studies in secondary schools should apparently be

discussed with the following considerations in the background of our thinking:

1. There are certain educational values such as stimulation of the power of clean thinking, etc., which may appropriately be claimed for almost any academic subject which is decently presented. Economics should not, therefore, lay claim to any particular merit in this particular field, if its sponsors have any sense of modesty.

2. The contribution of any specialized branch of social studies should be considered in terms of the general purpose of social studies in the secondary curriculum. As I see it, this purpose may be stated somewhat as follows:

The purpose of introducing social studies in the secondary curriculum is that of giving our youth an awareness of what it means to live together in organized society, an appreciation of how we do live together, and an understanding of the conditions precedent to living together well, to the end that our youth may develop those ideals, abilities, and tendencies to act which are essential to effective participation in our society. The range of this statement is very broad. For example: the contribution of knowledge and physical environment to our social living is quite as worthy of attention as are the principles of economics or government. Parenthetically, it may be noted that, "awareness," "appreciation," and "understanding" come only when descriptive facts are presented in their relationships.

The foregoing is, as was indicated, merely background material. As for the peculiar contribution which economics may make, a collection of opinion is worth more than my own individual judgment and I accordingly present certain samples of statements from representative economists.

Professor Carver, of Harvard University, makes the following statement:

"The fundamental problem of economics is how to make a living. As modified by social conditions, it becomes, how to support large numbers of people and support them well. At the beginning of this problem is that of choosing what to do in order to make a living. The problem of choosing what to do, however, divides itself up into three special problems: First, what wants to satisfy. This involves choosing among the various conflicting desires of the same person. Second, what means of satisfaction to choose. Third, what methods of getting the means of satisfaction.

"Each of these choices implies that under the circumstances of time and place one desire may be for the time being more important than another; also that one means of satisfaction may be more desirable than another; and third, that one method of getting the means of satisfaction may be more effective than another. Always, and in each case, the problem relates to the special circumstances of time and place.

"The desire for air, for example, may be just as important as the desire for bread; but in the circum-

stances under which most of us live, the desire for air is fully satisfied, whereas the desire for bread is not. Under such circumstances it is obviously more important that we choose to get more bread than to get more air. As to methods also, it is more important at one time and place to use one method than another.

"You ask what contribution economics can make that can be comparable to the sense of continuity which the historian thinks that he makes. It seems to me that the contribution of economics is almost contained in the word. In the largest and most important sense the contribution of economics should be a clear conception of the meaning of economy. Economy means to choose, under the circumstances of time and place, the most important of numerous alternatives,—the most important desire, the most important means of satisfying desire, the most effective method of acquiring the means. There are perfectly clear and definite principles which must determine each of these choices. Another way of saying the same thing would be to say that economics should give a clear conception of the meaning of value. To evaluate one's desires is to choose the most important. To evaluate the means of satisfying desire is to place them in the order of relative importance; to evaluate the various methods of acquiring means is to place them in the order of their relative effectiveness. However, I see no advantage in multiplying alternative words or phrases. I come back, therefore, to the proposition that the contribution of economics should be to give a clear conception of the meaning of economy or what it means to economize."

Professor Earl Dean Howard, of Northwestern University, makes the following statement:

"The purpose of the social studies in secondary education should be the improvement of the student as an individual, a citizen, and a social unit. The development of industrialism, with its social complexities, increases the need for greater coördination of individual activities which are the results of a coördination of individual wills. Leadership and the willingness to aid and follow leadership intelligently is the method of accomplishing such coördination. Social intelligence is a matter of accurate knowledge of human relationships, especially the economic relationships of our business system. The adjustment of the individual to his social economic environment—his economic relationships—largely determines the satisfactoriness of his life, howsoever measured, therefore, his education should give him the greatest possible intellectual competency in this direction."

Professor Emory R. Johnson, of the University of Pennsylvania, contributes this:

"The contribution which economics ought to make to social studies in the secondary education is that of saving young men and women from the acceptance of unsound principles of business. Much of the effort of society is devoted to overcoming consequences of the foolish notions entertained by uneducated men

and women, and many of those foolish notions have to do with business principles."

Professor Willcox, of Cornell University, makes this statement:

"The contribution of economics seems to me to center about a realization of our relations to others and of the growing interdependence of mankind in the ordinary business of living. The average child and the average unenlightened American family are excessively self-centered, individualistic, and not trained to take instinctively the social point of view. Economics rightly taught is better able than any other study to give this point of view; wrongly taught, it exaggerates the self-centeredness of the individual or the family."

Professor Irving Fisher, of Yale University, contributes the following:

"I think that the contribution which economics may make to social studies in the public schools should be along the lines of combating current and dangerous fallacies and substituting a correct understanding of money, capital, and distribution. Also to show the evils which need correction."

### SOCIOLOGY

BY PROFESSORS R. L. FINNEY AND E. C. HAYES

The practical function of sociology is to render society *telic*. Social science aspires, in the interest of human welfare, to blue print the social forms of the future; its hope is to guide social evolution in harmony with the needs of human nature. More concretely, the function of social science is to formulate scientific solutions for our social problems and promote their adoption as reforms.

But, social changes wait upon changes in the social mind. In fact, that is what they *are*. Blue prints of a better society are functionless so long as they exist only in the minds of social scientists. They must exist also in the minds of a large number of the people. Only as the ideas, ideals, and habits requisite to a different society are imparted to the members of the community, can a different society appear. To pour public opinion into the new moulds is quite as essential to *telic* social evolution, therefore, as to draft the blue prints. More concretely, our social problems can be solved only as the people are able to unite upon scientific programs for their solution; and they can so unite only as they know what they are. And with that knowledge of social solutions must go the appropriate ideals and habits to make them work.

Just as some elements of astronomy which are taught to geography classes dispel the notion that the earth is flat and stationary, so some of the simplest and most thoroughly established elements of sociology serve to remove popular misconceptions about life. These elements of sociology are as important in helping people to understand the facts of economics and politics as anything that is taught by these special sciences and are equally applicable to all of the other phases of social life. Sociology shows how far and by what method the content of life for everyone of

us is derived through social contacts. It shows the types of causes by which the prevalent opinions, sentiments and practices of a society are molded, and the causes which must be controlled, in so far as they can be controlled, in order to modify the social life. *It shows not only what is to be desired, but goes far toward showing the extent to which and the method by which the desired results may be obtained.*

Sociology shows that as we learn the language of our group before we are six years old, so before we are capable of rational discrimination upon such themes we usually learn our religious, political, and moral ideas and sentiments. Understanding of these facts including the operation not only of tradition, but also of propaganda and prestige, is the only scientific and adequate cure for the prejudices and bigotry which separate social classes, sects, parties and nations and the only adequate preparation for open-minded citizenship and social cooperation.

Sociology shows the amazing variability of human customs and institutions among people of the same race under different conditions. Thereby it reveals the almost unmeasured possibilities of change and the fact that mass opinions and sentiments, although they do not change without a cause, may change to almost any degree. Thus sociology reveals the possibilities as well as the methods of progress.

Sociology, by solid facts, shows the nature and grounds of ethical requirements as no metaphysical speculation can do and supplies motives for ethical conduct that cannot be dispelled by advancing knowledge, but which gather strength as social understanding is increased.

Each of the social sciences has its essential place. Sociology differs from economics in that it contributes toward the understanding of the production and distribution of wealth a more adequate realization of the part which is played by socially evolved human nature and by custom. It differs from the more recent development in economics, yet more widely in the degree of attention which it gives to the results produced by the facts of production and distribution. Economics properly regards these facts as problems to be explained. Sociology regards them rather as causes of more general results appearing in the social life. Sociology differs from history in that instead of giving its attention to specific persons, incidents and events, it studies general movements and universal tendencies and because it is occupied less with the past than with the present and with the immediate future. It differs from political science in that instead of discussing the mere machinery of government it studies the practical problems to which political action must be applied. It differs yet more essentially from all of these in that it presents the principles which are applicable to the understanding and the modification of life in all of its aspects, including the development of language, religion, morality, political and economic institutions, and the customs which relate to recreation, ceremony and general culture; and it applies these principles to the specific problems which confront our nation and our time.



For the molding of public opinion the school is, of course, one of the most potent agencies. The aim of social science teaching in the high schools is, therefore, to impart to the rising generation what knowledge of social solutions the social scientists already possess, together with the corresponding habits and ideals, with a view to rendering society *telic*. A consensus of opinion of competent social scientists would doubtless furnish the best available guidance as to what the specific contents of the high school curriculum in social science ought to be.

### GEOGRAPHY

BY PRESIDENT WALLACE W. ATWOOD

If *continuity* and *change* may be considered the key words in the study of history, if *organization* and *service* represent the central thoughts in political science, and the *practical problems of existence* the central thoughts in economics, the word *environment* may perhaps carry the central thought in the study of geography.

We have long since passed the day when the study of geography was limited to the definition of capes, islands, peninsulas, to the naming of capitals and the bounding of states. We have passed the stage when simple place geography or sailor geography formed the basis of our study of geography. With the development of the scientific study of the landscape, physiography has been organized; with the scientific study of the atmosphere, meteorology and climatology have been developed; with the scientific study of our natural resources (including the soils, the forests, the waterways, and the water power, together with that great storehouse of resources beneath the surface of the earth), there has developed economic geography. The study of geography has, therefore, taken on a national phase, and is being conducted in a thoroughly scientific manner.

With the crowding of the world with people, with the appropriation by men of all the lands and all the resources which are worth the having, the problems of existence have become more clearly evident, and the chief interest in geography has come to be centered in human geography. It is today a study of man's endeavor to adjust himself, or adapt himself, to an ever-changing environment. For civilized people that environment has grown larger and larger as the world has grown smaller and smaller. Improved means of transportation, and improved means of communication have made the environment of each civilized people world-wide in its extent.

With the organization of geography about the study of one natural region after another, a thoroughly scientific method of approach and development has been evolved. One region becomes complementary to another. The seasonal changes in the northern and southern hemispheres cause complementary relations. One land is suited for farming; another is a mining district; one is an industrial center; another a grazing land. These natural regions on the earth, with their populations, may be considered as human habitats, within each of which the people are enacting, as those

on a great stage, the drama of life. Those in one region wish to develop commercial, political and social relations with those in another region, and the world is drawn closer and closer together. International relations are involved, and the largest of all economic problems are developed. Geography, therefore, should furnish to the youth of the Junior High School, in his interpretation of history, an appreciation of the influence which geographic factors have had upon people; an appreciation of the influence such factors are having today upon people in their economic life, and will have upon people as they press forward to make greater use of the resources on the earth, and establish more intimate economic, political and social relations. The proper study of geography should lead the youth to a more intelligent and sympathetic appreciation of the various problems that the different peoples of the world are facing, and in the end to a broader and more noble-minded citizenship in the world.

### THE EDUCATIONAL VALUE OF SOCIOLOGY

BY PROFESSOR FRANKLIN H. GIDDINGS

Why should we study sociology? In particular why should sociology be required or recommended as a school and college subject? These questions should have careful and specific answer.

The substance of answer is: We should study sociology because it shows us how inexhaustibly interesting, as well as how complicated and often difficult, is the game of chess that we call life, and the importance of moves that are not obvious to untrained players.

This game is complicated because it is necessarily played within and subject to an intricate scheme of players and rules called human society. It is inexhaustibly interesting because human society has multiplied our opportunities and our adventures, and has developed our minds.

Society supplements memory by traditions and records. It accumulates knowledge by means of which, and by criticism, it extends and corrects our mental activities. It appraises our possessions and achievements, and disciplines behavior. It organizes relationships, activities and controls, thereby enabling men and women of strong character and good sense to improve their lot. It encourages and helps such as have little character and little sense to do the best they can. It makes as merciful as possible the inevitable extermination of those who have no character and no sense.

Dwelling in society and members of it we think of ourselves as "us" and also as "one another." We talk about what "we" think and do, and about "our" interests, "their" affairs, "his" or "her" behavior. We sort people into kinds, which we describe as good and bad neighbors, desirable and undesirable citizens, civilized and barbarous peoples, superior and inferior races, and so on. We even talk about mankind in general as becoming better or worse, improving or deteriorating.

Sometimes we ask ourselves how far these habits



and ideas are effective. Do they influence behavior as well as grow out of and reflect it? How do we conduct ourselves with good neighbors and desirable citizens? What do we do, or try to do, to bad neighbors and undesirable citizens? Do we emulate civilized peoples and try to be civilized? What do we do, or try to do, to barbarians? Assuming that we are a superior race, what do we do, or try to do, to inferior races? Are we trying to make mankind in general better, or at least to keep it from going altogether to the bad?

Exposed to so many stimulating situations and prodded by so many provocative questions we should think about life in a large way, and react to it with interest, instead of with the weariness of an indolent or an undernourished mind. Unless, however, the youth of this generation can be brought under influences that have not reached their elders they are likely to think narrowly, as the present fashion is, and to content themselves with meagre values.

Most of the human beings now living in the so-called civilized parts of the world care more for money than for the things of the mind. Commercial values alone absorb them. The material things that we desire to possess make a livelier and more insistent appeal to most of us than our ideals and standards of human excellence do. Our need of food, clothing and shelter is imperative, while comforts, luxury and "money" spell ease, pleasure and power. We can enjoy and contemplate them without much mental weariness. Even to think about them, as we habitually do, in terms of commercial values, is not laborious. Indeed, for many of us, it has an almost fatal fascination, because these values are subject to uncertainties of change, which awaken and hold an emotional interest, inseparable from chance.

The things that we possess, however, and our commercial values, are not ends in themselves. Strictly speaking, they are only means (as all right-thinking men and women admit) to such ends as the conservation, improvement and desirableness of human life. These objects, also, like our material possessions, we "set store by." We esteem and appraise, we value them, and the values so arising we call intellectual, personal, human or spiritual values.

Human values are not so easy to apprehend, and to understand, when we first make the attempt, as commercial values are, and they do not at once so keenly interest us. But if we form the habit of thinking about them we discover that the difficulties which they present are not really formidable, that the attempt to master them is exhilarating, and that the interest which they presently awaken turns out to be inexhaustible. Sociology calls our attention to these values, shows us their true relation to commercial values, asks our serious consideration of them, and incalculably multiplies our intellectual reactions to the ages-long struggle for a worth-while human existence. It reminds us that "a good name is rather to be chosen than great riches," and tells us why. It demonstrates concretely that any land fares ill, how-

ever rapidly its wealth accumulates, if men decay.

Not less simple than our ideas of what is worth while in life are the notions that most of us hold about ways and means to obtain what we want, and, in general, to get things done. Corporations look to governments for subsidies and "protection," and individuals to governments and corporations for jobs. The discontented resort to strikes, sabotage and violence as the only self-help they understand. Rich and poor alike are indifferent to knowledge and thinking makes them tired. They are impatient of the slow evolution of moral controls.

There is more than one way, and more than one class of ways, by which we try to get the material things that we desire to possess, try to become the kind of human beings that we wish to be, and try to make life increasingly desirable. There are ways privately initiated and carried out (the so-called voluntaristic ways) and there are governmental ways; there are ways of "direct action" so-called, culminating in revolution, and there are developmental or evolutionary ways.

The study of civics, or of government, directs attention to the necessity and the advantages of political organization, to the nature, authority and activities of the state, and to the functions of central and local governing agencies. Knowledge of these matters is indispensable. If, however, this knowledge is permitted to stand too much by itself, and no acquaintance with the countless forms of voluntary coöperation that have grown up and been practiced throughout generations is required, the pupil will go into life with an ill-balanced view of ways and means to get things done. He will too often turn to government for action that he should help to initiate and for which he should share responsibility. The tendency to look to governments, and through them to taxpayers, for appropriations and subsidies, and to substitute legislative or administrative commands for religious and educational controls, is always strong, and of late disquieting. It not only curtails individual liberty, a serious matter, and most serious when peoples that have begun to lose their liberties become indifferent to them or even disapprove of them as inconsistent with the common good, but also, and this is a more serious matter, it presently brings law into contempt and incapacitates government itself by putting upon it a load that it is unfit and unable to carry. Sociology shows us, as no other study does, the true relation of the individual to the public, of folk ways to state ways, of liberty to command, of education to coercion; and their normal limitations by one another.

Impatience with biological and historical processes and impetuous resort to direct action are characteristic not only of low intelligences and unstable characters, and, (on the whole more mischievously) of fiery temperaments righteously intolerant of injustice and misery, but also of youth; of perfectly healthy, sane, and capable youth.

Young humans are as intolerant of restraint as young animals are, and with more reason, because

they have enough mental power to be aware that the adventure of life lies before them. Conscious energy and daring cry out for freedom to think and to act. For the same reason youngsters of both sexes are fiercely individualistic in feeling, whatever creed of fraternity they may profess. They demand liberty for self-expression, and they identify self-realization with the chief end of man.

Youth may voice its demand intellectually, as Byron and Shelley, and Rousseau before them, did; or it may break out in practical revolt. Youth takes ardently to "movements" from strikes to revolutions. They look like lines of minimum effort, and their appeal is dramatic, while self-expression through creation, artistic, or inventive, looks hard.

Youthful rebellion is directed in the main and usually against the "man-made" laws and institutions of organized society. This again is a dramatic and seemingly a relatively easy drive, while rebellion against conditions imposed by nature, through heredity or otherwise, if more than a mere petulance is a serious undertaking, involving scientific research, discovery and adaptation. In this matter, however, the older generation should not too severely condemn the younger, for the older has taught the younger much that is not true about the causes of success and failure in life. In particular, it has attributed to opportunity or the lack of it, or to education or the lack of it, achievements and disasters which, in truth, should sometimes have been attributed to inborn character, strong or weak, or to inborn ability, great or negligible. Therefore, it is not to be wondered at if youth, more resentful against restraint endured than appreciative of liberty enjoyed, indicts society.

The counts are many. "The existing social order," as radicalism loves to call it, is declared to be imperialistic, imposing a resented rule upon subjugated peoples. To this end, we are told, the social order is also militaristic, devoting millions of human lives, generation by generation, to slaughter. The cause of such wickedness, the arraignment continues, is capitalism, which consists in the monopolization of the means and opportunities of wealth-production by a class, which, for profit, exploits a much larger and very miserable class, the proletarians or wage-earners. And finally, it is charged, capitalism, to keep the wage-earners quiet and manageable, controls the schools and the churches, seeing to it that they teach nothing in the name of either science or religion which might make the poor discontented in that station to which it has pleased God to call them.

The phrase "the existing social order," it is understood, is an indictment in itself. It could and should connote a priceless heritage of human attainment; but, as commonly used, it does not; and as employed in the jargon of revolution it gives no hint that organized society, through ages of incredible toil and tribulation, has created every possibility of individuation, and of self-realization, that the human race now enjoys.

As we gain experience, however, and get knowledge (including some acquaintance with history) we begin to question whether it really would help matters to

destroy institutions or to abrogate laws. What if back of organized society and working through it are forces that have created it, and that regenerate it whenever it suffers violence? We may put the sheriff in jail and overthrow the government that appointed him, but how about our neighbors? Their heads are full of notions (commendable, no doubt) about behavior, which they seem disposed to apply to us; for our good, if we take their word for it. But if our self-determination doesn't go on all fours with theirs, things happen to us. We then make the discovery that their disinterestedness is not inconsistent with severity. The number of things that they learn how to do to us (without due process of law) is appreciable, and the variety exhausts ingenuity. They can shun us and ridicule us; they can refuse to employ us, or to buy our wares. In the end, if they find our ways of enjoying liberty too obnoxious they can deport us, quite informally, and with or without embellishments.

And this is not the only one or the worst of our discoveries. Besides all the obviously good creatures who (with kind intention as we know) firmly do things to us for our improvement, there are characters who do things equally unpleasant, for other reasons. They pick pockets and steal automobiles; they hold up travellers on highways and break into houses at night; they kill any who oppose them, or they murder for vengeance, or for a paltry price. If capitalism were done away with might not such unkind beings still find ways to make life hard for their fellow men? Has it not been suggested that they worried Russia more or less after revolution had proclaimed communism, and promised to make everybody happy?

The rejoinder may be made, and it is made, that evil men and women are not wicked by nature, but have been made wicked by injustice or misfortune. They are brutalized products, it is said, of the social order. "If they only had a chance," the refrain runs, "they would be kind and good."

As a working hypothesis this contention has been provocative not only of revolutionary disorder, but also of no little humane effort. Nevertheless, as we begin to examine it, our skepticism returns. It occurs to us that in various parts of the world there are tribes of barbarians, and little hordes of dirty savages, whose social order is different from ours. They have never been debauched by capitalism, but they are not unacquainted with wickedness. They have been known to scalp and to steal. Some of them are cannibals. They have even made war now and then, in their poor way. Their laws are not like ours, but their usages are stern; and their taboos are merciless. They have amiable traits, to be sure, to offset their evil ways. In particular, they are loyal to one another. They redress one another's injuries, and defend one another against a common foe. But, on the whole, we gather that we might as well endure the ills we have as fly to theirs. Clearly, there must be causes of evil and annoyance in human life besides profits and the wages system. What are they?

Perhaps we shall never be able to find a completely satisfying answer to this question; but one thing we

know now. Impulses to evil and to good are biological inheritances, and they have a history that runs cons back of human life. There are gregarious animals: packs, herds, bands, swarms of them. They, too, like human beings, are good and bad. They care for their young; they work together in making nests or other habitations, and now and then they share food with one another. But also they steal and kill. Above all, they are herd-minded. They have neither laws nor conventions, but neither have they any "individuation." Whatever the pack or the swarm does, every creature in it does.

Denial of biological facts and wrath at folkways has never yet annihilated them. Kicking against the pricks doesn't alter heredity or appreciably mollify custom. It is only a childish or a tragic expression of them. Cruelties and kindnesses, aggressions and loyalties, meddlings and tolerations, exploitations and coöperations; taboos, conventions, laws, institutions; restraints, disciplines, the social order, these survive all revolutions, eternally insistent, always and everywhere forcing themselves upon attention. We have to live with them and shape our lives by them. We may as well try to understand them.

Sociology is our systematic attempt to understand. It factorizes the ways and products of pluralistic human behavior. It seeks their origin, and follows their evolution through milleniums of trial and error, elimination and substitution, correction and adaptation, integration and differentiation. It exhibits the relation of revolution to evolution, and shows us why direct action, always rude and wasteful, is also, so often, futile.

These, then, are some of the outstanding and significant reasons why we should study Sociology. It directs attention to the whole scheme and range of values, and convincingly exhibits the subservient relation of commercial values to human or spiritual values. It brings to our notice the variety and the vitality of spontaneous and customary ways of collective action, and shows us the relation of these folkways to state-ways, of voluntaristic to authoritative methods of trying to achieve desired ends. It exhibits the relation of direct action to an evolution which proceeds through an investigative and constructive trial and error. By concrete evidence it corrects an untutored view of ways and means.

Sociology, then, is not a "vocational" subject, although it is by no means without value in vocational study. Sociology is frankly a "liberal" study, an indispensable part of the so-called "liberal education." The distinction is simple and clear. In getting our vocational training we are learning how to *do* specific tasks, and to do them well. In getting a liberal education we are learning how to *think*, and discovering what matters are best worth thinking about. In studying Sociology we are learning how to think in a scientific spirit, soberly and dispassionately—about great human interests, and preparing ourselves to take part intelligently and responsibly in community life and in large public affairs.

## GEOGRAPHY

BY PROFESSOR J. RUSSELL SMITH

So far as secondary education is concerned, Geography is the study of the earth as the home of man. It is an important part of a high school curriculum because geographic knowledge is (A) fundamental to the proper education of the citizen, (B) fundamental to the education of the business man, (C) fundamental as preparation for other studies, (D) fundamental as a part of the equipment of the cultivated mind.

*As the Center of the Curriculum*—If the curriculum is to be something better than a collection of disconnected scraps it must have some central core to which the other subjects are related. No other subject can rival geography in rendering this service in the lower grades. Accordingly, Geography should begin immediately upon the acquisition of the great tools—the three Rs.

Geography should be taught through most of the pre-high school years, when the child is especially strong in memorizing ability. He then acquires much geographic fact—place geography. This is material for future interpretation and is a framework for the addition of future knowledge.

The central relationship of Geography in the curriculum still appears in the high school, when we observe that it furnishes an indispensable base or foundation for much of the work in History and Economics, and to a slightly lesser extent, for Civics.

### *A. Geography as an Aid to Citizenship.*

Fairyland is surpassed by the new powers that science has placed in the hand of man for the control of material things. We are face to face with the golden age—with an almost undreamed Utopia, if only we can but muster the constructive imagination to use the knowledge and apply the powers we now have. The trouble is that our imagination has not yet caught up with our powers for good and evil. On its material side, the makers of the new Utopia must deal with the things taught in Geography courses, much as the engineer uses building materials. Not only does geography furnish the materials but it cultivates the imagination. In this respect, Geography, if well taught, is the peer of solid geometry and has a much richer residuum of utility.

It is easy to see that we have achieved world powers. We buy and sell by continents, we invest money, eat and clothe ourselves by continents, we talk and listen by continents, but we have not yet learned to think or feel by continents or to govern ourselves by continents. Hence came the World War, ripping civilization asunder and wrecking human beings in numbers that are beyond the abilities of our minds to comprehend. Other wars, quite needless, hover over us. Intellect and good will should prevent them. One basis for international understanding is geographic knowledge. The most important task facing the human race today is that men should realize and act upon world concepts—realize and act upon the fact that the world is one. How shall we bury intellectual provincialism and set the concept of world



unity in place of it? This is a task at which teachers of Geography must work. Geography, telling of the earth, is the basis, the background, the stage, and it is also the intellectual broadener.

*Political Geography*—High school training for citizenship needs an understanding of the geographic environment, a world viewpoint, and some knowledge of world problems along lines similar to that presented in Isaiah Bowman's "The New World," which may perhaps be called the first political geography written in America. There is a great difference between political geography and some kind of geography on political divisions.

*The Scientific Method in Citizenship*—Despite their great usefulness, History, Civics, and Economics are fields in which it is often difficult to use the scientific method of cause and effect, because much of the data and their relationships are indefinite. This is a great misfortune to society, because one of our greatest needs is the introduction of the scientific method and the scientific point of view into the field of social decision. Geography can show much more definite relationships of cause and effect than can Economics, Civics, or History. In the realm of Civics and Economics a political factor or an economic principle is often modified by the whims of human nature, and so enmeshed by other circumstances that the effect of the factor or principle may be only discerned and by no means measured. The same is true of History. In Geography it is much easier to see result stand out, as when drought and flood and frost make crop failure, aridity makes nomadism or causes men to introduce irrigation. Because of this greater definiteness of cause and effect, Geography is an important aid in getting a new and much needed viewpoint and mental habit with regard to social phenomena.

#### B. Geography for the Business Man.

*Commercial Geography*—If a person is to make business decisions, Geography is an integral part of his training. Already the leading foreign traders, investors, financiers, manufacturers, sales managers, and other business leaders, are demanding Commercial or Economic Geography. It is also true that this study is now a part of the course in most commercial high schools and collegiate schools of commerce, business administration or applied economics. Commercial or Economic Geography needs to be continued and taught more thoroughly because no other subject gives this useful information or this important mental background.

*Regional Geography*—Regional geography divides the area under consideration into units having similar natural conditions and therefore producing similar activities. It is difficult to conceive of a business man who would not be better off as the result of a good course in the Regional Geography of the United States or North America, if the course were presented with a degree of thoroughness and philosophic elaboration commensurate with the mental age of the students. If the school aims to train students especially for foreign trade there should be courses covering some of the other continents as well as

North America.

#### C. Geography as a Foundation for Other Subjects.

Economics, the science of wealth, is a joint product of the physical environment and human nature. Geography is the course dealing with the physical environment, and thereby furnishes a fundamental basis for Economics.

Civics, the study of government, deals with people attempting to solve certain kinds of problems in their home place. What is the influence of the home place in making the problem, and in helping or hindering its solution? Geography gives this answer.

History, the record of man's activities, may be but dramatic episode unless the stage upon which it was played is clearly understood. Every play begins by telling the scene, and so History must be incomplete until the scene of what occurs is understood. When the influence of the environmental factor is shown, History may be largely explained. Thus, it is plain that Geography is fundamental to the understanding of History.

One of the greatest contributions that the social sciences can make to the student mind is the idea of development, change, progress toward better things. This is one of the strong points of Geography. I am not urging any less attention to History, but I wish to state that Geography even exceeds History as a means for conveying the impression of development. To appreciate this, show the students a clear cut environment such as the equatorial forest, the desert's edge, a marshy flat land, a semi-arid grassy plain, a rich but isolated mountain district, an estuary whose navigable river reaches a rich hinterland. Then note how man, meeting the needs of life in these different environments, develops so differently his industry, his ideas, his institutions, his government, his society, his history.

We need to have a rich understanding of this environment if we are to understand "whence we came, whither we are going, and what we ought to be and to do while we are going." Geography is the older sister of History, Economics and Civics; perhaps one might almost say the parent.

#### D. Adds to the Pleasures of the Intellect.

*World Affairs*—World politics, the development of countries, peoples, nations and movements, is a drama of absorbing interest. The more we understand them the more interesting they are. The more Geography we know the more we understand them. Geography, then, helps to decide whether or no we are real spectators of the world play.

*Physical Geography*—Shall the earth be to man merely a foot rest or something for his mind to understand? The winds forever blowing where they list and the waters forever flowing to the all-receiving sea are the chisels of God that have shaped and are continuing to shape this, his footstool, on which we live. I have often been told by students of Geography that the understanding of these things had greatly increased the pleasure of travel. This knowledge had made the common hills and roadsides speak to them as beauty of color and form speak to an artist.

I should not recommend that a course in Physical Geography, with interesting field trips and observations, be required in any high school. It should be an elective for those who have intellectual appreciations.

#### CONCLUSION

An examination of these objectives or expectations will show that they are not mutually exclusive. They are supplementary, each contributing to the best development of the others.

A course, going under the name "history," and taught by one who is trained in geography, sociology, economics, and government, and carrying in mind the objectives of all of these subjects, could attain to some realization of all of them by his pupils. A course in "government" in similar circumstances, or a course in "economics," could not avoid accomplishing most of the ends sought. The sense of progressive development could be seen in the origin and growth of political institutions over a longer or shorter period, depending on the length of time given to the work by the pupils; the influence of geographical conditions on the growth of institutions would not be omitted; the wise teacher would bring out the fact that society is busy in other ways than through political organization in attaining to those projected ideals toward which we are striving; and the economic welfare, which after all must go ahead of preparations for a full life, would be constantly in the foreground.

This is no argument for a short course or a makeshift compromise, but for a realization of the fact that we are not engaged in an enterprise in which we must cut each other out in order to attain to our

proper hopes. It is also no argument that the best possible course is one in which the principle of division of labor and the distribution of emphasis in different parts of the course is neglected. These things are to be worked out. It may be wise to follow the basic idea in the report of the Committee on the Social Studies in Secondary Education and give a year or more to the "history" of the background of our civilization; and another to this civilization as it is being worked out particularly in American conditions; with a third to a more careful consideration of recent history in the light of scientific economics and political science, whether divided into a half year of government and a half year of economics or a whole year in problems of democracy. It may be better to select periods of history and study them with due emphasis on the geographical, economic, political and sociological aspects. It is futile to dogmatize about these things except it be to state our claims as a precedent to an examination of them.

Having clearly stated what we want accomplished we have only prepared the way to find out whether it is worth accomplishing, whether it can be accomplished, and how it may be best accomplished in view of the expectation of others who have a right to demand attention. The work of the Joint Commission of scholars will be observed with the greatest interest for their task is fundamental and they are well equipped to perform it. With good fortune the next yearbook of the National Council may be able to present a statement from them which will clear the atmosphere in which we work.

## Pennsylvania Program of the Social Studies<sup>1</sup>

BY J. LYNN BARNARD, Ph. D.

### I. *Some Fundamental Principles.*

This twelve-year program has as its aim the training of the pupils in practical good citizenship, rather than the mere accumulation of facts for possible future use. It would define citizenship as participation in community life; and by community is meant any group, be it large or small, be it social, industrial, religious, fraternal, educational, or political.

It recognizes the fact that citizenship is a life process, a life experience, and that all are citizens. It believes that training in citizenship, in coöperative group life, must be like the training in English, continuous and cumulative throughout the twelve years of school life. From this standpoint the history and social science of the high school are not simply specialized studies, to be taken only as electives; they are a vital part of the making of intelligent, qualified citizens—the only justification of the tax-supported public school system.

This program insists that history and social science are of coördinate rank and importance; the one giving

us a perspective as to how mankind has slowly and painfully learned to lead the group life; the other giving us a sort of cross-section view of how man is now leading the group life, through the various organizations and activities that together constitute present-day civilization.

Further, there is distinct recognition of the various psychologic stages through which our young citizens are passing, with corresponding adaptation of both content and method.

And, finally, the impossibility of securing satisfactory results through the usual reciting-to-the-teacher method is accepted as beyond question. While the teaching process must be varied, the main dependence for success must be placed on the problem-project method, and on the constant breaking up of the class into small groups for the preparation of assigned work. The uncompromising nailed-to-the-floor desks must give way to comfortable chairs properly equipped for student use, supplemented in junior and senior high school by small tables around which the small groups can gather. In short, the classroom for social studies must become a laboratory, with book-laboratory equipment and resources. This change is

<sup>1</sup> This statement went to press without the possibility of submitting the proof to the writer.

fundamental and not a mere device, as some would have us believe. It is an integral part of the school's training in coöperative democracy.

## II. A Twelve-Year Program.

The schedule proposed for the State Course is as follows:

### A. Elementary.

#### 1. History.

##### a. Grades I-III.

Part One: Anniversary Days.

Part Two: Indians, Esquimaux, Cliff Dwellers; Early Man—Tree Dwellers, Cave Dwellers, Sea People, Pastoral People.

##### b. Grades IV and V. Stories of American History.

##### c. Grade VI. European Background.

#### 2. Civics.

##### a. Grades I-VI. Civic Virtues (Morals and Manners).

##### b. Grades III-VI. Community Coöperation.

##### c. Grade VI. Vocational Coöperation.

### B. Junior High.

#### 1. History.

##### a. Grade VII. United States History.

#### 2. Social Science.

##### a. Grade VIII. Community Civics.

##### b. Grade IX. Vocational-Economic Civics.

### C. Senior High.

#### 1. History.

##### a. Grade X. European History.

##### b. Grade XI. American History.

#### 2. Social Science.

##### a. Grade XII. Problems of Democracy.

### HISTORY

In the History of the first two grades the emphasis is placed on the Indian, both because he lends himself so easily to expression work and because he forms a sort of half-way approach to Early Man, taken up in the third grade.

The third and fourth grades are planned to contrast primitive man under primitive conditions with civilized man under primitive conditions. In the one the progress is slow and painful, as man learns to lead the group life. In the other the progress is rapid and comparatively pleasurable. The difference spells civilization—community coöperation—the group life.

Grade six has three purposes: to fill in the break between grades three and four; to orient the young citizen; to form a background for the work of grade seven.

American history is covered three times, but in different fashion each time: grades four and five, in story form; grade seven, consecutive, but dealing only with the simpler aspects of our country's history; grade eleven, topical-chronological, dealing with the maturer phases and problems of American history.

Throughout all the history study of the junior and senior high school constant use is made: first,

of the "approach" to each topic, which ties the topic to the live interest of the pupil; second, of comparisons and interrelationships; third, of committee work in the solving of the various problems presented, care being taken to touch only the high spots.

The European history of the tenth year (possibly including the last half of the ninth) is intended to be a world survey, with steadily increasing emphasis as recent times are approached.

Truncated history—whether the part reserved for study is the so-called "ancient" or the so-called "modern" history—is not a part of the Pennsylvania program of citizenship training. To be effective, the story of human progress—of how man has learned to coöperate with his fellow man—must begin where the story itself begins, and end where it ends. With the problem method and committee reports this becomes feasible; with the formal recitation and the inclusion of petty detail it is next to impossible.

### SOCIAL SCIENCE

The "Civic Virtues" of the elementary civics are so planned as to aid in the formation of right social habits during the impressionable early years. The value of habit as a constraining influence with young citizens and with older ones is carefully kept in mind.

The "Community Coöperation" of the intermediate grades is intended to show the service rendered by the people round about us; how dependent we are on that service; how interdependent we all are, due to our highly specialized vocational life; how this interdependence is made possible only through coöperation; and, finally, how coöperative good citizenship necessitates the exemplification by each citizen of the civic virtues already stressed.

"Community Civics" discloses to the young adolescent how the elements of civic welfare are secured through community organization, that is, through organized community coöperation. Having reached the organization (the "gang spirit") stage the pupils are ready to become interested not only in activity, but in the organization back of the activity. However, care is taken to follow the order of interest of the pupil; namely, from activity to organization and then to legal powers. The end of civic instruction being civic activity, the young citizens of the class are helped to discover how they themselves may coöperate in some organized fashion.

The Vocational-Economic Civics of the ninth year has a twofold aim. The Vocational Civics discusses the nature of occupations, the qualities and training necessary for advancement, the social service to be rendered, and the business ethics involved.

The Economic Civics is a sort of elementary economics, or business civics, with a more general discussion of how wealth is produced, consumed, and exchanged.

Either of these semester courses may be taken without the other, where time is to be found for European history in the second half of the ninth year.

The course in Problems of Democracy is based on the proposition that young people face problems, not



sciences; but that they must go to the social sciences for explanations and possible solutions of these problems. It is also based on the notion that there are certain fundamental concepts (described in the syllabus) with which every intelligent adult citizen must be acquainted; and that these concepts should be taught, not directly as topics in themselves, but indirectly along with the problems under discussion.

This culminating study in the social studies program is primarily intended to train our upper high school students in how to investigate, to reason, to compare, to judge. It is expected to train in power and

initiative. As a by-product, it lays a foundation in the social sciences both for those who go to college and for those whose academic education ends with the high school. The stand is taken that the public secondary school—the “people’s college”—has no right, from a social standpoint, to send young men and women out into the world lacking specific training in the problems of American Democracy—the problems whose solution will soon be in their hands. Longer to side-step this all-important function of the high school is to “reap the whirlwind.”

## The Place of the Social Studies in the High Schools of Missouri

BY CAROLINE E. HARTWIG OF SAINT JOSEPH.

The social studies are passing through a period of transition. Thought is being crystallized as to the objectives at which the social studies must aim. It is now generally conceded that citizenship must be the general aim of the social studies and plans to reorganize the social studies on this basis have been worked out by various national committees. Other committees are still working on this problem. It takes a while for schools to accept the well-worked-out suggestions of these various committees and Missouri schools are no exception to this rule.

Endeavoring to find out just what the first-class high schools of the state were doing with the social studies, the Committee on the Course of Study in Practical Citizenship of the Missouri State Teachers’ Association had questionnaires sent out to all the high schools of this rank in the state during the 1921-22 school year. Of the 396 questionnaires sent out, 128 were returned. Questionnaires were not always filled out properly and consequently some of them had to be cast aside in tabulating the data they contained. However, the results were fairly interesting.

Below is listed the number of schools offering each social study out of a possible 115:

### NUMBER OF FIRST-CLASS HIGH SCHOOLS OUT OF 115 OFFERING SOCIAL STUDY SUBJECTS

<i>Social Study Subjects Offered</i>	<i>No. of Schools</i>
Ancient History . . . . .	68
Medieval and Modern History . . . . .	60
Early European History . . . . .	42
Later European History . . . . .	42
American History . . . . .	110
English History . . . . .	55
Civics . . . . .	67
Economics . . . . .	58
Sociology . . . . .	86
Community Civics . . . . .	41
Missouri History . . . . .	18
Vocations . . . . .	5

A study of this table shows that practically all of the schools that answered the questionnaires offer

either ancient or early European History. The number offering medieval and modern or later European history is only a little smaller. One is not surprised that 110 schools teach American history but that five do not. In all five schools where this is so, English history is offered. Out of the 115 questionnaires used, only one reported less than four units of social studies.

Of these schools 64 have only one course of study leading to graduation. In these schools the pupils take practically all the social studies offered because of their rigid curriculum, and consequently get a fairly large amount of the social studies. The other 51 schools offer various courses leading to graduation. It was found that the classical courses usually require ancient or early European history and a little over half of them require American history. The Teacher Training Courses all require American history, nearly all require sociology and half insist upon community civics. Ancient history and early European history make a good showing in the commercial course, but American history is sadly neglected. Not enough schools offered home economics, general, vocational, agriculture, or science courses to make any generalization possible.

Before leaving this subject, the place which the social studies occupy in the high schools of the largest cities of the state must be mentioned. The St. Louis schools require community civics and vocations of all freshmen, and one-half year each of modern and American history of all seniors. Sophomores and juniors may elect history of various types.

The system used in the Kansas City High Schools is entirely different. One year only of social studies is required and the pupil is free to choose any social study subject he desires. Ancient, modern, and American history are all offered for one year; civics is offered for one-half or one year; and sociology and industrial history each for one-half year. In order to graduate, however, a pupil must have three years of one subject group and two of two others. The social studies constitute one of the possible seven groups.

Sociology was first introduced in 1918 in Manual Training High School in spite of opposition from members of the school board, who thought that it would be merely a rehashing of a college subject. It proved so popular that it is now offered in all the high schools. Manual training also offers a course in economics, and a course in community civics is being organized.

The St. Joseph High Schools require American history and civics in the senior year of all courses. Community civics is required of freshmen taking the commercial course. Ancient history is a requirement for freshmen taking the classical course. All sophomores may elect medieval and modern history and juniors may choose sociology and economics.

The amount of social studies in the first-class High Schools of Missouri seems adequate. Whether the courses are effective in making for citizenship is an entirely different question. While too much emphasis must not be laid on textbooks, still they are an indication of the type of work that is being done.

A list of the texts mentioned more than twice in the questionnaires from the 115 schools and the number of times they are mentioned follow:

#### Ancient History Texts

Ashley, <i>Early European Civilization</i> . . . . .	4
Breasted, <i>Ancient Times</i> . . . . .	4
Myers, <i>Ancient History</i> . . . . .	15
Robinson and Breasted, <i>Outlines of European History</i> , Vol. 1. . . . .	23
West, <i>Ancient World</i> . . . . .	5
Westermann, <i>Story of the Ancient Nations</i> . . . . .	3
Webster, <i>Early European History</i> . . . . .	5

#### Medieval and Modern History Texts

Harding, <i>New Medieval and Modern History</i> . . . . .	9
Myers, <i>Medieval and Modern History</i> . . . . .	7
Robinson and Beard, <i>Outlines of European History</i> , Vol. 2 . . . . .	19
Robinson, <i>Medieval and Modern Times</i> . . . . .	3
West, <i>Modern World</i> . . . . .	6
West, <i>Story of Modern Progress</i> . . . . .	4

#### Early European History Texts

Robinson and Breasted, <i>Outlines of European History</i> , Vol. 1 . . . . .	25
Ashley, <i>Early European Civilization</i> . . . . .	12
Webster, <i>Early European History</i> . . . . .	4

#### Later European History Texts

Robinson and Beard, <i>Outlines of European History</i> , Vol. 2 . . . . .	29
Ashley, <i>Modern European Civilization</i> . . . . .	7
Webster, <i>Modern European History</i> . . . . .	3

#### English History Text

Cheyney, <i>Short History of England</i> . . . . .	50
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#### American History Texts

Ashley, <i>American History</i> . . . . .	3
Beard, <i>History of the United States</i> . . . . .	3
Forman, <i>Advanced American History</i> . . . . .	3
Hart, <i>New American History</i> . . . . .	5
Muzzey, <i>American History</i> . . . . .	70
West, <i>History of the American People</i> . . . . .	5

#### Civics Texts

Ashley, <i>New Civics</i> . . . . .	4
Guiteau, <i>Government and Politics in the United States</i> . . . . .	4
Magruder, <i>American Government in 1921</i> . . . . .	15
Woodburn and Moran, <i>Citizen and the Republic</i> . . . . .	25

#### Economics Texts

Bullock, <i>Elements of Economics</i> . . . . .	7
Burch, <i>American Economic Life</i> . . . . .	3
Carver, <i>Elementary Economics</i> . . . . .	7
Ely and Wicker, <i>Elementary Principles of Economics</i> . . . . .	15
Thompson, <i>Elementary Economics</i> . . . . .	10

#### Sociology Texts

Burch and Patterson, <i>American Social Problems</i> . . . . .	10
Ellwood, <i>Sociology and Modern Social Problems</i> . . . . .	37
Gillette, <i>Constructive Rural Sociology</i> . . . . .	3
Towne, <i>Social Problems</i> . . . . .	19

#### Community Civics Texts

Ames and Eldred, <i>Community Civics</i> . . . . .	3
Dunn, <i>Community Civics and Rural Life</i> . . . . .	7
Hughes, <i>Community Civics</i> . . . . .	20

#### Missouri History Texts

McClure, <i>Boys' and Girls' History of Missouri</i> . . . . .	9
Violette, <i>History of Missouri</i> . . . . .	6

#### Vocations and Occupations Text

Gowin and Wheatley, <i>Occupations</i> . . . . .	5
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Social study programs are constantly being changed from year to year. In order to find out the trend which the social study teachers would prefer the social studies to take, were they allowed free reign in the matter, seven social study programs based largely on the recommendations of various committees were outlined and the teachers were asked to check their first, second and third choice.

The programs are given below and numbered for convenience in making the table which will follow. Ninety-three teachers responded.

I. Ancient history; medieval and modern history; English history; American history, and civics.

II. Ancient history; medieval and modern history; English and American history; sociology and economics.

III. Early European history; later European history; American history; sociology, economics and civics.

IV. Community civics and occupations; European history; American history; problems of democracy.

V. General social science; survey of social evolution (historical); American history; social, economic and political problems.

VI. Civics, early European history, later European history; American history.

VII. Community Civics and Missouri History; general history; American history; economics and sociology.

NO. TEACHERS CHECKING COURSES				
Courses	1st Choice	2nd Choice	3rd Choice	Total
I	13	6	4	23
II	9	8	10	27
III	30	16	18	64
IV	12	29	15	56
V	4	8	12	24
VI	3	11	11	25
VII	22	15	22	59

The large numbers listing III, IV and VII show that American history is preferred for the third year. Sentiment as to whether history or elementary social problems should comprise the first year's work is divided.

That more sociology, economics and civics have not been offered in the high schools does not necessarily mean that teachers are unwilling to give them. Teachers who have introduced or tried to introduce these subjects were asked to check the problems they have encountered. From the answers to this question the following information was obtained:

Difficulties encountered	Times encountered
Lack of library equipment . . . . .	66
Inadequate teaching force . . . . .	61
Too many required subjects . . . . .	46
Too many formal subjects . . . . .	34
Non-preparation of teaching force . . . . .	28
Satisfaction with present curriculum . . . . .	26
Misunderstanding of nature of social studies by patrons . . . . .	25
Patrons' fear of teaching evolutionary doctrines . . . . .	22
Lack of interest on part of students . . . . .	20
Social studies not recognized for entrance by higher educational institutions . . . . .	17
Fear of radical (political) teaching . . . . .	8
Objection from superintendent or principal who holds to formal subjects . . . . .	7
Objection from Board of Education . . . . .	6

Replies to this question were received principally from the smaller high schools of the state. This explains the number checking the first two problems listed. The next two show the need of an entirely new reorganization of the high school. If the high school is to function properly, formal subjects will have to be discarded in favor of those of known value and the subjects which are made requirements will have to be chosen on this basis alone. The non-preparation of the teaching force will be discussed in detail later on.

That there is so much misunderstanding of the nature of the social studies and fear of teaching evolutionary doctrines is a sad commentary on the intelligence of our people. Whether students really are not interested in economics, sociology and civics is doubtful. Usually lack of interest is manifested only because people do not know what these subjects really are.

How great is the problem growing out of the refusal of higher educational institutions to recognize these subjects for entrance is not shown by the fifteen who checked this problem. The larger high schools,

particularly those who send three or four graduates a year to some eastern school, seem to think this a sufficient reason for not offering these subjects to the hundreds of students whose education is not continued in these schools.

A survey of the place of the social studies in Missouri would not be complete if the social study teacher were left out. Whether a teacher is able to make her work effective depends upon many things. One is the amount of other work she does aside from teaching social studies.

The following information was procured from a perusal of the *List of High School Teachers, City and County Superintendents of Missouri, 1921-22*.

Number of Duties of Social Study Teachers	Number Teachers
Teacher of social studies only . . . . .	198
Teacher of social studies and holder of executive position (principal or superintendent) . . . . .	32
Teacher of social studies and one other subject and holder of executive position . . . . .	112
Teacher of social studies and two other subjects and holder of executive position . . . . .	88
Teacher of social studies and three other subjects and holder of executive position . . . . .	21
Teacher of social studies and four other subjects and holder of executive position . . . . .	3
Teacher of social studies and one other subject . . . . .	271
Teacher of social studies and two other subjects . . . . .	86
Teacher of social studies and three other subjects . . . . .	10
Teacher of social studies and four other subjects . . . . .	2

The number of teachers who have charge of social study work only seems large until one notices that St. Louis contributes 32 and Kansas City 25 of these teachers. This is the ideal situation. A teacher, however, can do two different types of work well. Accepting this as a criterion, we find that 44 per cent fall short of this standard.

Lack of adequate preparation is another thing that hinders the high school social study teacher. Various reasons have been mentioned as causes for this lack of preparation. In order to determine what the social study teachers, themselves, think are the causes, seven reasons were listed and the social study teachers were asked to rank them in the order of their importance in their estimation. Sixty-five teachers complied with this request. In compiling these data each cause was given as many points as the rank assigned it. Consequently the cause with the smallest number of points ranked first.

Causes of Inadequate Preparation of Social Study Teachers	No. of Points
1. Requirements for a B. S. in Education degree are too high in education subjects and not high enough in the subject of specialization . . . . .	225
2. The prospective social study teacher goes straight from college, university or normal school into the teaching profession and so has not had enough contact with life . . . . .	262
3. The teacher who has specialized in something else is transferred to the social study department . . . . .	258



4. While in college the social study teacher did not decide upon subject of specialization until it was too late to prepare adequately 301
5. The requirements for teaching social studies are too low . . . . . 321
6. Advisors in colleges, normal schools and universities do not function adequately as aids in the selection of subjects to be taken by prospective social study teachers . . . 340
7. University courses are so theoretical they do not put any emphasis on concrete problems 367

No matter how much preparation a teacher may have, success in teaching the social studies is dependent upon the objectives which the teacher has in mind. In order to determine what Missouri social study teachers deem important eight social study objectives were listed and the teachers were asked to rank them in the order of their importance in their estimation. One hundred teachers complied with this request. In compiling this material the same plan was used as in compiling that on the reasons for the poor preparation of social study teachers. Consequently the objective with the smallest number of points was first choice.

Rank	Objective of Social Study Teachers	No. of Points
1.	Citizenship when through school . . . . .	195
2.	Better school citizenship . . . . .	368
3.	Stimulus to participate in social relationships . . . . .	369
4.	General culture . . . . .	390
5.	Appreciation of newspapers and magazines . . . . .	419
6.	Reading regarding social relationships during leisure . . . . .	615
7.	Knowledge of sources of material . . . . .	618
8.	Preparation for advanced work—college preparatory . . . . .	626

The ranking given these objectives is what one would expect. The objectives ranking first, second and third are obviously on much the same order. General culture probably holds the place it does because the function of the high school was once thought to be to promote this rather vague ideal. That preparation for advanced work occupies the last place shows that Missouri teachers realize that the high school must take into consideration first of all the student who will receive further formal training.

This concludes the information gained from the questionnaires. Whether conditions are better or worse in Missouri than in other states can only be determined by similar surveys carried on in other places.

## Progressive Tendencies of State History Teaching in the Elementary Grades

BY HARRY L. HAUN

Recent progressive tendencies in state history that might lead one to think this subject deserves an important place in the public schools are as follows: first, North Carolina's state-wide motion picture plan of teaching state history; second, the socialized recitation plan of having the pupils work out their own text material in state history; third, the actual production of concrete, interesting and well-rounded reading material adapted to the pupils; and fourth, the attempt to lift state history out of the class of local chronicles, and thus portray the history of each state from the earliest times to the present day, not in isolation, but in relation to the history of the nation. Each of these special aspects of the subject will be considered more in detail in the pages that follow.

### NORTH CAROLINA'S STATE-WIDE MOTION PICTURE PLAN OF TEACHING HISTORY

North Carolina has recently planned and now has in operation a series of films that will make the history of that state more real to the people.<sup>1</sup> The first picture of this series depicting the Roanoke Island colony has been completed and there are now three prints of this film circulating in the state. It is enthusiastically received everywhere it has been shown and is booked for six months ahead. Preparations are going forward now for the making of the second picture of this series. The material is being gathered for the outline and those in charge confidently expect

to have the picture made within the next twelve months.

The General Assembly of 1917 passed a law, the purpose of which was to improve the social and educational conditions of rural communities through a series of entertainments varying in number and cost, and consisting in part of moving pictures selected for their entertaining and educational value.<sup>2</sup> To put this law in operation, \$25,000 was appropriated by the General Assembly. Although the law provided that only one third of the expense of the entertainments was to be paid by the State Board of Education under the direction and supervision of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, this type of extension work was so successful and met with such general approval that recently a state appropriation of \$50,000 was made for the Division of School Extension of the Department of Education, for rural recreation, education and entertainment. Out of this \$50,000 appropriation, \$3,000 was set aside for making the first series of history pictures.

The pictures were made on Roanoke Island, and the characters were principally selected from the people living on the island. The films were inexpensive, as the cost for the first five reels was something less than \$3,000. The work was under the direction of the State Department of Education.

Pictures are being shown in a considerable number of counties where circuits have been organized. As the law provides that the county board of education

be made custodian of the community funds raised for this purpose, and requires this board to apply in its own name to the State Board of Education for one-third of the cost of each local entertainment, it seemed best to limit each circuit to a group of communities within a single county.<sup>3</sup>

It has been found, after careful and extensive investigation, that the only effective and economic way of operation in the rural communities is to make up complete portable operating units. These can be put upon definite circuits in which a number of communities are conveniently grouped.<sup>4</sup> A director of the division is employed in the Department of Education. Films have been purchased. In each county trucks and motion picture machines are provided with a mechanic. Provision is made for a director of mechanics to oversee the mechanical end of the work for all counties. A lady extension worker is employed to look after the details of the showing of the pictures, the advertising, and the social, literary and musical features of the programs that are given in the several communities.

The first picture of the series consists of five reels covering the early English expeditions and attempted settlements that were financed and encouraged by Sir Walter Raleigh.<sup>5</sup> The first two reels depict the expedition under Captains Amadas and Barlowe. The remaining reels show the adventures of the colony under Governors Ralph Lane and John White. The birth of Virginia Dare and the return of John White after an absence of three years to find the colonists gone and only the word "Croatan" carved on a tree to indicate their destination, are dramatic episodes.

#### THE SOCIALIZED RECITATION PLAN OF HAVING THE PUPILS WRITE THEIR OWN STATE HISTORY TEXT

State history has been made more real to the pupils of 8B grade at the Winona State Teachers' College, Winona, Minnesota, for they have written a fairly complete hand made booklet of their own state history.<sup>6</sup> There is a preface, a table of contents,<sup>7</sup> and a bibliography of eleven books and pamphlets which were used as source material.

One progressive feature about this booklet is certain concrete pictorial features that should be suggestive to writers of state history texts who desire to make history real to their youthful readers. In the section devoted to state institutions, which is by far the most complete, is found a detailed ground plan of the Minnesota State Prison, showing the court, laundry buildings, various cell houses, factory buildings, dining room, chapel, greenhouse, coal bunkers, administration buildings and many other features. The diagram is large enough that each of these special buildings or departments may be studied more in detail. For example, the administration building is divided into eighteen separate sections, such as barber shop, officers' dining room, warden's reception hall, rooms for the guards, and business offices. Other buildings show such interesting features as Bertillon room, printing shop, punishment cells, tailor shop, steward's room, library and foundry room. It is safe to say that the children who worked and studied out

this detailed plan of their state prison know more about the life and administration of a state prison than they would have if they had read several texts about this subject.

While colored post card pictures are used as illustrations there is sometimes a tendency to make these more concrete by additional graphic information. For example, beneath the illustration showing the "School for the Blind," at Fairbault, Minnesota, is a complete alphabet of raised letters.

As this booklet on Minnesota was the result of a half year of more or less independent work on the part of the pupils it is interesting to read it just to find out what the children think a state history should contain. While no doubt the teachers guided the pupils somewhat it is interesting to note what selections the children did best. The Indian and pioneer life is well done. The section dealing with territorial government and the transition to statehood seems to be mechanical. The division which deals with state institutions is excellent. The children are interested not so much in when these soldiers' homes or institutions for the deaf or blind were founded or how they were governed, as they are in what the people do who live there. Such sentences as the following are common:

"A half mile from the main building is a farm where the boys are taught farming . . ."

"In the school for the blind music, broom-making, hammock-weaving, beadwork and sewing are taught."

"At the school for the deaf the children are taught speech, lip-reading and drawing. . . . in the trades department the boys are taught farming, printing and shoemaking."

#### THE PRODUCTION OF CONCRETE, INTERESTING AND WELL-ROUNDED READING MATERIAL ADAPTED TO THE PUPILS

Whatever may be the advantages of motion pictures or pupil booklets for teaching state history the majority of the public elementary schools lack either the funds or time for presenting history in these ways. An abundance of concrete, interesting and well-rounded reading material must be the basis of the work for the present.

One of the most intelligible and interesting state histories for young readers is *A History of Virginia for Boys and Girls*, by John W. Wayland. The narrative has been made concrete by presenting facts in connection with persons, places and incidents, by weaving in easy phases of civics, geography and literature, and by ever keeping in mind human and social values.

Examples of the complete description of places, such as the following, are very frequent. Note this description of the Cumberland Gap:

"It is a huge notch—a deep saddle—in the towering Cumberland Mountain. In the gap, at a certain point, a man can put his feet in one state and his hands in two others; for it is there, on the northern line of Tennessee, that the western tip of Virginia ends, driven like a wedge under the broad shoulder of Kentucky."<sup>8</sup>

Note the concrete place element in this description of the first settlement at Jamestown:

"On a day in May, in the year 1607, three little ships came sailing up a broad river. On the ships were a hundred or more Englishmen. At a point about forty miles up from the mouth of the river, where a large shoulder of land extended into the water, the ships stopped and the men landed. The river at this point is three or four miles wide, and the shoulder of land extended out from the north bank a mile or more.<sup>9</sup>

"The Indians called this great river Powhatan, after their mightiest chief; but the English called it the James, after their king in England. On your map you will see that this great river heads in the Alleghany Mountains. It breaks through the Blue Ridge at Balcony Falls, and on its banks are now the rich cities of Lynchburg and Richmond. Guarding its mouth are Newport News, Portsmouth and Norfolk. Through the mouth of Chesapeake Bay it pushes its way to the ocean.

"You will also observe that the capes at the mouth of Chesapeake Bay are called Charles and Henry. The hundred Englishmen of whom we speak gave the capes those names in honor of the two sons of King James; and the village that they founded up the river where they landed they called Jamestown."

One of the most effective features of this *History of Virginia for Boys and Girls* is the skillful use of repetition. You do not meet a character just once as a chance acquaintance, but you meet him so many times that you come to regard him as an old friend.

Examples of the effective use of repetition are frequent. In Chapter VII one learns that old Alexander Spotswood was a good, royal governor of early Virginia. In Chapter XI one meets him again as the Tubal Cain of Virginia and the founder of the order known as the "Knights of the Horseshoe." In Chapter XII one discovers that "William Byrd had a famous friend . . . Alexander Spotswood."<sup>10</sup> Although Thomas Jefferson and John Rolfe are mentioned numerous times in the early part of the history of Virginia it is interesting to note that a chapter on schools near the close of the text is entitled, "Jefferson's Dream," while a neighboring chapter in discussing the "Farms and Orchards," begins as follows: "From the days of John Rolfe, so long ago."<sup>11</sup>

One defect of many of the state histories, as has been shown in another chapter of this discussion, is the lack of a well-rounded proportional development of all the aspects of state life. This *History of Virginia for Boys and Girls* is fairly well rounded, for there are chapters on many of the phases of state life. The industrial history of the state is not omitted. There are chapters with headings such as the following: "In the Tobacco Fields," "Cities and Factories," "Rumsey and McCormick," and "Farms and Orchards." The social life of the people is given in such chapters as "Pocahontas and Her People," "Life on the Plantations," "Life in the Mountains," "Turnpikes and Stage Coaches," and "Ante-Bellum

Days." The educational history of the state is presented in these chapters: "The University of Virginia," "Lee at Lexington," "Maury and His Maps," and "Jefferson's Dream." Almost every chapter is "shot through and through" with the geographic element, while others, such as "The Gateways in the Mountains," are distinctly geographic.

The teacher and pupil helps given at the close of each chapter are helpful. In the place of a long summary or list of events to be remembered only four or five facts out of each chapter are listed. There are two separate lists of reference books, the one, for the pupils, of a very simple nature, and the other, more comprehensive, for the use of the teachers. The references listed are from books in print that can be obtained at a reasonable price.

As a supplementary book for use in state history to show the development of the social and economic life of the people, *Iowa Stories, Book One*, by Ray Aurner, is excellent. The book is not a number of narrative stories. It is a series of cross-sections from the pioneer life and industry of a prairie state that is typical of all the states in this region. The following suggestive titles of chapters are taken from the table of contents: "The First Roads in Iowa," "The Roads of the White Man," "Crossing the Streams," "The First Houses," "The Food in the Log Cabin," "The Simple Machines of the New Home," "The First Family Industries," "Early Flouring Mills," "Saw Mills," "Woolen Mills," "Living on Game," and "The First Schools in Iowa."

#### THE NATIONAL ELEMENT IN STATE HISTORY

Many syllabi makers, state history textbook writers, historians and teachers are attempting to lift state history out of the class of local chronicles, and thus portray the history of each state from the earliest times to the present day not in isolation, but in relation to the history of the nation.<sup>12</sup>

Representative elementary state courses of study emphasize the national elements of state history. The Kansas state course of study provides that "the history of Kansas shall be taught in its relation to the history of the United States."<sup>13</sup> Another course of study states:

"At least one-third, possibly one-half, of the year should be given to the study of Minnesota in its relation to the whole United States, to the West, and especially to the Northwest."<sup>14</sup>

The syllabus for the state of Montana enriches the United States history in the elementary grades by introducing the study of state history at definite intervals where correlations can be most advantageously made.<sup>15</sup> In New Mexico the plan is to correlate state and national history at intervals from the fourth to the eighth grade inclusive.<sup>16</sup> Such expressions as the following are common:

"Chapters I-VIII of Vaughan (the adopted state history) should be studied parallel with Beard and Bagley (the adopted U. S. History) in order that the history of the state may be seen in its proper relation to the history of the United States."<sup>17</sup>



Authors of various state histories used in the elementary grades emphasize the national phase of their local history. The following is from the adopted state history in Mississippi:

"It has been attempted to tell the progress of events as they developed, each as a part of a rounded whole; incidents are given in their connection and setting or not at all . . . the story will be found to transcend the strict limits of state history . . . in fact the life of the state has not been a separate development, and it can be understood only in its connections."<sup>18</sup>

The state history recently adopted for use in the state of New Mexico attempts to lift the "story of the state out of the class of local chronicles"<sup>19</sup> and treat it as a part of the history of America and the great Southwest. The author of a text used in a Northern state, writes:

"Since Minnesota history is, in so many places, parallel with, and dependent on, the development of the nation, it seems particularly appropriate that its study should be correlated with the general course in American history, or should immediately follow it. Young students cannot be expected to understand the history of the state unless they are informed concerning national events and policies which shaped and determined that history; they must not regard the state as an independent unit, influenced only by local conditions. An attempt has been made throughout this book wherever possible to give local events a national background or setting, and it is to be hoped that teachers will carry this phase of the work much further."<sup>20</sup>

Of the many historians<sup>21</sup> and practical school men who realize the importance of the national element in local history evidence from only two will be given, the one a principal of a large eastern school and the other a historian of national reputation. Walter Lefferts, in a brief discussion of an address on "The Teaching of Local History in the Schools," delivered by Calvin Kendall at The Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland, spoke in part as follows:

"What parts of local history shall we use? From the point of view of mere information it seems to me that we should use only such portions as will illuminate our national history. After all, it is our national chronicle that is most important for an intelligent citizen to know. . . . Local history should both lean upon and reinforce this knowledge of national history. On one hand we may avoid the pitfalls of triviality into which the local chronicler is apt to fall by selecting for our purposes only such events of local interest as have some national significance; on the other we may lend zest and definiteness to our teaching of national history by showing some local connections."<sup>22</sup>

One of the leading historians of Johns Hopkins University states:

" . . . local history should always be written from the point of view of universal history. The writer of local history must certainly discern the

meaning of what he is doing, or it will be of little value. The currents of local history should flow into the greater channel of national history and ultimately of world history."<sup>23</sup>

#### SUMMARY

1. North Carolina has a state-wide motion picture plan of teaching state history that has proved very effective. Out of a state appropriation of fifty thousand dollars, three thousand dollars were set aside for making the first series of pictures. They depict the attempts of Sir Walter Raleigh to colonize America. The films, of which three prints are now in circulation, were made on Roanoke Island. The characters were principally selected from the people living on the island. There is a thorough organization for the showing and distributing of films to the various county units.

2. The socialized recitation plan of teaching state history has been worked out to some extent at Winona State Teachers' College, Winona, Minnesota. There the pupils of the 8B Grade have written and to some extent illustrated their own state history. The advantage of such work is that it emphasizes pupil experiences rather than teacher method.

3. A limited number of fairly well-rounded texts that are interesting, concrete and well adapted to the pupils, have been produced in a few states. Much remains to be done in this field.

4. An attempt is being made at the present time to teach and write state history, not as a local chronicle, but as a part of the history of the nation. This plan is advocated by many historians of state and even of national reputation. Syllabi makers, textbook writers and teachers in a number of the states also favor the emphasis of the national element in state history.

<sup>1</sup> Much of the information given above was obtained from personal letters received by the author from D. H. Hill, Secretary North Carolina Historical Society, and W. H. Pittman, State Department of Education, State of North Carolina.

<sup>2</sup> *Biennial Report of Bureau of Community Service, State of North Carolina, (1918-1920)* p. 4.

<sup>3</sup> *Biennial Report of Bureau of Community Service, op. cit.*, p. 5.

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid*, p. 5.

<sup>5</sup> *North Carolina Pictorial History, Series No. 1, Educational Publication No. 40.* pp. 4 ff.

<sup>6</sup> Guildemeister, *Minnesota Courses of Study and Manual for Teachers* (1918) p. 175.

<sup>7</sup> The table of contents, as here quoted, will give an idea of what was accomplished. *Part I—Early History of Minnesota*—A The Dakota or Sioux Indians: (1) Manner of living and occupations; (2) Customs and ceremonies; (3) Mounds and builders; (4) Names derived from the Indians. B First White Men: (1) Names of men; places visited; fur trading; (2) Mission of white men; early roads and mail routes; (3) Fort Snelling. *Part II—Minnesota as a Territory*—A Organization and Development of Territory. B Conditions of country in 1849. C Conditions of country in 1850-1855. D Transition to Statehood. *Part III—Minnesota as a State*—A Progress of Minnesota after becoming a State. (1) Prison; (2) Reformatory; (3) Training school; (4) Soldiers' home; (5) Insane asylums; (6) School for defectives; (7) State normal schools and university. F. A Chronicle of Recent Events; "Minnesota" by Governor Hammond; the state song.

<sup>8</sup> Wayland, *A History of Virginia for Boys and Girls*, p. 210. The above description is made all the more effective by a map of the Cumberland Gap and adjacent regions.

<sup>9</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 11 ff.

<sup>10</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 94.

<sup>11</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 349.

<sup>12</sup> For contrary opinion see *Local History*, pp. 5 ff. by Sherman Williams. Mr. Williams states in part: "New York is rich in history . . . Her important history does not receive adequate treatment in any general school history of our country, and can not . . . If our children are to know the history of our state as they should, it must be taken up as an independent study, and it is well worth a year of study."

<sup>13</sup> *Course of Study for Rural and Graded Schools* (1919) *State of Kansas*, p. 199.

<sup>14</sup> Gildemeister, *op. cit.*, p. 175.

<sup>15</sup> *Montana State Course of Study* (1921) *City Elementary Schools*, pp. 264, 287, and 296.

<sup>16</sup> *New Mexico Common Schools Course of Study and Some Important School Laws* (1921), pp. 41 to 44.

<sup>17</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 43.

<sup>18</sup> Fant and Fant, *History of Mississippi*, Preface.

<sup>19</sup> Vaughan, *History and Government of New Mexico*, Preface, p. i.

<sup>20</sup> Carney, *Minnesota, the Star of the North*, Preface, pp. v-vi.

<sup>21</sup> In many high schools it is already conceded that state history should be taught from a national view-point. E. M. Violette, Head of History Department, State Teachers' College, Kirksville, Missouri, has written *A History of Missouri* for high schools based altogether on a national background. See Appendix C.

<sup>22</sup> *The Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland—Proceedings of the Meetings held in Nineteen Fourteen at Trenton and Princeton, N. J., and New York, N. Y. No. 12*, pp. 17-18.

<sup>23</sup> Latane, "The Significance of Local History," *Ibid.*, p. 43.

## The Present Status of State History Teaching in the Elementary Grades<sup>1</sup>

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The purpose of this investigation is to determine the present status<sup>2</sup> of state history teaching in the elementary grades of rural and village schools of the United States. Such schools as these are as a rule under the direction of the State Departments of Education.

Such questions as the following are of paramount importance. In what states is state history taught? Is the teaching of state history optional or is it required by law? In what grades is this subject taught? How much time is given to it? Are teachers required to pass an examination in state history in order to secure a certificate? Are graduates from the common schools required to pass an examination in state history in order to secure a diploma or certificate of promotion?

Only two studies that deal with state history from a somewhat national viewpoint have been made so far as the writer has been able to discover. Neither one of the studies pretended to make a comprehensive study of state history in all sections of the United States.

In the summer of 1909, Franklin L. Riley,<sup>3</sup> Professor of History at the University of Mississippi, gathered a number of facts from teachers in southern schools which are of interest in this connection. The findings show in general that the time and place in the curriculum, the schedule of recitations, and the nature and amount of supplementary material vary greatly in the different states.

As most of the teachers were from Mississippi the conclusions concerning that state are the most important. It was found that the twenty-minute recitation periods were "totally inadequate," that Mississippi history was used to fill only the places in the curriculum that might be found after provision had been made for other subjects and that "parallel reading" had been neglected.

In 1912, R. M. Tryon<sup>4</sup> tabulated a questionnaire study of history teaching in 259 cities, towns, counties and districts; of which 163 were in Indiana and the other 106 from towns and cities in twenty-nine states and in the District of Columbia. One question dealt with local and state history. Out of 68 favorable replies, thirteen taught state history, thirty correlated it with local geography, twenty-one studies the city, county and state history, and four correlated it with either the regular history, geography or reading. The conclusions were as follows:

"There is little evidence that local history is taught in any one grade much more than in another. From the data supplied one concludes that the courses are very indefinite, and the material unorganized and often hard to obtain. There is evidence that most systems favor some work of this sort. To get the work in such form that both teachers and pupils can use it seems to be the present problem."<sup>5</sup>

### EXTENT AND SOURCES OF DATA

A one page questionnaire with form letter attached was sent to the state superintendents of each of the forty-eight states of the United States. As some of the state offices are limited as to funds for mailing material outside of the state, fifty cents in stamps was enclosed for any expense incurred. Special bulletins, state courses of study, and other available materials were requested. Forty answers were received at once. A second request brought answers from the remaining states.

Thirty-six reports were made by persons signing themselves as state superintendents, assistant state superintendents, or rural school supervisors. In twelve cases there was no definite indication as to the position of the person giving the data.

A similar questionnaire was sent to the authors of the state histories in the respective states. The answers returned were checked against those received

from the department of education in each of the corresponding states.

The results of both questionnaires were rechecked in various ways. Free use of the recent state courses of study was made. Numerous letters have been received from state superintendents, authors of textbooks, and others interested in the subject. Most of the state histories and the supplementary stories used in the United States have been obtained. Students in the University of Chicago were interviewed as to the practices in state history in their respective states. Free use was made of the school laws in many of the states to determine whether state history is required by law. If obscure points still remained, a personal letter to the state superintendent of the state in question often obtained the definite or detailed information desired.

#### THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire was confined to one typewritten page as such a report always receives a more gratifying response than a more extended or detailed request. Only facts as to what was actually being done were requested. One question that was important was repeated twice so it could not be overlooked. The complete questionnaire follows:

Is state history taught in your state?

In what grade or grades taught?

Required or optional?

Name of adopted text?

Publishers of adopted text?

Are eighth grade pupils required to pass examination in state history for common school diplomas?

Are teachers required to pass examination in state history when examined for certificate?

Are pupils required to purchase text, or is it to be placed in hands of teacher only?

Name and address of author or authors of text?

Number of months state history is studied?

What map books or special charts are adopted for use with state history?

Are above prepared by author or authors of adopted texts?

In what grade or grades was text previously adopted used?

What supplementary texts or publications used?

Number of recitations in state history per week?

If no text is adopted what one is most used?

In what grade was text previously adopted used?

If not able to answer all questions please answer those you can.

#### TABULATION AND INTERPRETATION OF THE DATA

Table I is a tabulation of much of the data used in the investigation. Following the table will be found such interpretations and amplifications of data as seem necessary.

#### STATES IN WHICH STATE HISTORY IS TAUGHT

As indicated by Table I, every state in the United States has made or plans to make some provision concerning the teaching of state history. To the question, "Is state history taught in your state?" the answer in thirty-four cases was "Yes," with no qualifications whatever. Four states answered "Yes, but with United States History." Seven states indicated

that state history was taught only to a very limited extent or in an incidental way. Two states are now either working on state history courses or plan to teach the subject ultimately.

From the standpoint of textual material a canvass of the situation shows that nineteen states, mostly in the southern or western sections of the United States, have either basic state-wide adopted texts or have adopted United States histories with state history supplements. Indiana and Arkansas are the only states that use the latter plan at present, with the possible exception of California. This state used a local history supplement to the Mace, *United States History* several years ago. The deputy superintendent of public instruction writes in a personal letter:

"I think there are many of these still in the schools, as they were free state textbooks. Just now we are not carrying any supplement to the history."

In addition to the state history supplement mentioned above, Arkansas uses Reynold's *Makers of Arkansas History*, and adopted state history text on the fifth and sixth grade level.

Nineteen states representing all sections of the United States, have either county or local adoptions of state history texts, or stories that are used either separately or to supplement the United States histories in use. In two states, Utah and Delaware, several books are used by the teachers for reference; but the pupils buy no text, as all teaching is oral.

Two states have not yet worked out their plans for state history. J. A. Churchill, Superintendent of Public Instruction for the State of Oregon, writes:

"This subject has not been made a part of the course of study in Oregon as yet. However, there is a course of study in process of preparation and this subject will, no doubt, be made a part of the course of study which will be ready for distribution next September."

W. D. Lewis, Deputy Superintendent of Instruction for the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, states:

"The introduction of the history of Pennsylvania into the schools of this state has not taken final form yet; so that it would not be worth while for me to fill out the questionnaire. . . . We are planning to include Pennsylvania history as a part of the elementary school course, and shall ultimately have a syllabus in this subject."

Several states require special consideration. The educators of Massachusetts feel that they make provision for state history when they teach United States history. Burr F. Jones, Supervisor of Elementary Education, states in a personal letter:

"We are in a rather difficult position in Massachusetts to answer your inquiry with regard to state history because of the fact that in the early days of the country, Massachusetts history and colonial history coincide at many points. In fact, so much of the material relating to Massachusetts history is included in all United States histories, it has not seemed necessary for us to establish a separate course of study dealing specifically with state history."

In Rhode Island, the Commissioner of Education



TABLE I.—PRESENT STATUS OF STATE HISTORY.

NAME OF STATE	IS STATE HISTORY TAUGHT	GRADE OR GRADES IN WHICH TAUGHT	NUMBER OF MOS. TAUGHT	REC. PER WEEK	REQUIRED	EXAM. FOR TEACHER'S CERT.	EXAM. FOR EIGHTH GRADE	NATURE OF TEXT MATERIAL	TEXT USED BY PUPILS OR IN HANDS OF TEACHER ONLY
Alabama	Yes	Sixth and Seventh, as a rule	One Semester	Five	Required	Yes	Yes, but at the close of Seventh Grade	State adopted text book	State History text in hands of pupils
Arizona	Yes, with U.S. History	Varies	Varies	No requirement	Optional	No	No	Incidental with State Adopted United States History Text	U. S. History text in hands of pupils
Arkansas	Yes	Sixth and Seventh	Four	Usually three	Required	Yes	Yes	As adopted State Text, also a Supplement to United States History Text	Texts in hands of pupils
California	Yes, with U.S. History	Third to Eighth, usually Fifth and Sixth	One and one-half to two months	Four or Five	Required	No	No	Supplement to U. S. History, also such State History found in U. S. History	U. S. History Text, in some cases with state supplement in hands of pupils
Colorado	Yes	Eighth	Nine, throughout entire Eighth Grade	No requirement	Required	May be included	Yes	No adopted State History Text, several may be used	State history text may be in hands of pupils or the work may be incidental
Connecticut	Only incidentally	Varies	Varies	Varies	Optional	Supervision Agents in State educational History	No	Pamphlets from State Department, also text may be used locally	Pamphlets may be in hand of pupils or teacher, also texts
Delaware	Not from a text book	Fourth and Sixth	Not Fixed	Not Fixed	Required in course of study	Yes	No	No State Adopted Text	Text in hands of teacher only
Florida	Yes	Sixth	Six	Five	Required	Yes	Pass on Class or examination	State Adopted Text Book	Text in hands of pupils
Georgia	Yes	Sixth	Varies	Five	Required	Yes	Yes, but at the close of Seventh Grade	State Adopted Text Book	Text in hands of pupils
Idaho	Yes	Sixth and Eighth, as a rule the Sixth	Varies	Three to Five	Required	Yes	Yes	State Adopted Text Book	Text in hands of pupils
Illinois	Yes	Seventh and Eighth	Not Specified	Optional	Usually required	Yes	Yes	Each District may adopt its own text, a number are used	Text in hand of pupils or teachers
Indiana	Yes	Eighth	A few weeks	Not Fixed	Required as a part of U. S. History	Yes, if questions are included	Yes, if questions are included	State History Supplement to Adopted United States History	U. S. History with state supplement in hands of pupils
Iowa	Some in the grades	Fourth to Fifth inclusive	About four and one half	Two to five	Optional	No	No	No State Adopted Text, Economic and institutional state history stories used	Text, as a rule in hands of pupils
Kansas	Yes	Seventh	Three or Four	Five	Required	Yes	Yes	State Adopted Text Book	Text in hands of pupil furnished free by state
Kentucky	Yes	Sixth	One year minimum six mo.	Five	Required	Yes, included with U. S. History questions	No	State Adopted Text Book	Text in hands of pupils
Louisiana	Yes	Fifth	Four and one-half	Five	Required	No	No	State Adopted Text Book	Text in hands of pupils

TABLE I.—(Continued.)

NAME OF STATE	IS STATE HISTORY TAUGHT	GRADE OR GRADES IN WHICH TAUGHT	NUMBER OF MOS. TAUGHT	REC. PER WEEK	REQUIRED	EXAM. FOR TEACHER'S CERT.	EXAM. FOR EIGHTH GRADE	NATURE OF TEXT MATERIAL	TEXT USED BY PUPILS OR IN HANDS OF TEACHERS ONLY
Maine	Yes	Seventh and Eighth especially	At least one term of school	Not prescribed but sufficient to cover work	Required	As part of U. S. History examination	Yes, same as other subjects	No State Adopted Text. Various texts and source books are used	Text for reference in library of school and in hands of teachers
Maryland	Yes	Fifth and Sixth	About four	Averages three per week	Yes, to a certain extent	Yes	Yes	No State adopted text County adoption of various state histories	Free text in hands of pupils
Massachusetts	Not a separate subject								
Michigan	Yes	Seventh and Eighth	During Seventh Grade	Not Fixed	Required	Yes, combined with U. S. History	Yes, combined with U. S. History	No State Adopted Text. History stories, and in Eighth Grade part of U. S. History	History stories hands of teachers and pupils, also U. S. History in hands of pupils
Minnesota	No Not generally	Fifth to Eighth incl.	No requirements	No requirement	Optional	No	No		
Mississippi	Yes	Sixth	Six to nine months	Three to Five	Required	Yes	Yes	State Adopted Text Book	Text in hands of pupils
Missouri	Yes	Eighth	About two months	Five	Required in Eighth grade but not in high school	Yes, for State Certificate	Yes, over one-fourth year's work	No State Adopted Text. County adoptions of various State Histories	Text in hands of pupils. Text sometimes used by teachers for reading circle
Montana	Yes, with U. S. History	Fifth and Eighth Grade inclusive	No requirements	No requirement	Optional	No	No	No Adopted State Text. Adopted supplementary stories with U. S. Hist.	"Story of Montana" in hands of pupils, also U. S. History adopted text
Nebraska	Yes	Eighth	No requirements	No requirement	Required	Yes, included with U. S. History questions	Yes, included with U. S. History questions	No Adopted State Text. Two texts used rather extensively	Text in hands of pupils as a rule, sometimes in libraries for reference
Nevada	Yes	All grades	Not Fixed	Not Fixed	Required	No	No	No Adopted Text. Stories of Nevada and where available	Nevada stories in hands of teachers U. S. History in hands of pupils
New Hampshire	Yes	Seventh and Eighth	Not Fixed	Not Fixed	Required	No	No	No Adopted Text. Supplementary material for U. S. History Text	Supplementary material in hands of teacher. U. S. History in hands of pupils
New Jersey	Yes, with U. S. History	Eighth for the most part	Varies	Varies	Required	In connection with U. S. History	In connection with U. S. History	No adopted text. U. S. History, supplemented by "Stockton's N. Y. Stories."	Stories of New Jersey, and U. S. History in hands of pupils or teacher
New Mexico	Yes	Seventh and Eighth	None, for state history and civics	Five	Required	Yes	Yes	State adopted Text. Often taught in combination with U. S. History	Text in hands of pupils
New York	Yes, but incidental	Fifth, Sixth, Seventh and Eighth	No requirement	No requirement	Optional	No	No	No state adopted text. Incidental material to supplement U. S. History	Incidental material in hands of teacher U. S. History text in hands of pupils
North Carolina	Yes	Fourth, Fifth and Sixth	Minimum of Eight Months	Varies	Required	Yes, if certificate by examination	A local requirement only	State adopted basic and supplementary texts	Text in hands of pupils
North Dakota	Not as a separate subject	Not Fixed	Not Fixed	Not Fixed	Optional	No	No	No state adopted text. No text written as yet for school use.	Oral teaching from source material in Dakota Blue Book

TABLE I.—(Continued.)

NAME OF STATE	IS STATE HISTORY TAUGHT	GRADE OR GRADES IN WHICH TAUGHT	NUMBER OF MOS. TAUGHT	REC. PER WEEK	REQUIRED	EXAM. FOR TEACHER'S CERT.	EXAM. FOR EIGHTH GRADE	NATURE OF TEXT MATERIAL	TEXT USED BY PUPILS OR IN HANDS OF TEACHERS ONLY
Ohio	Yes, to some extent	As a rule the Seventh or Eighth	Varies	Varies	Optional	No	No	No state adopted text. Each local unit adopts text. Several texts used	Texts for the most part are in the hands of pupils
Oregon 1	Not Yet								
Oklahoma	Yes	Sixth	Three to Four and one-half	Five	Required	Yes	Yes	State adopted text book ;	In hands of pupils
Pennsylvania 2	Not Yet								
Rhode Island	Yes	Varies with localities	Varies with localities	Varies with localities	Optional	No	Varies with localities	Patriotic and Historical pamphlets issued by State Department	Pamphlets in hands of pupils and teachers
South Carolina	Yes	Sixth and Seventh	Five to Nine	Five	Required	No	No	State adopted text book	In hands of pupils
South Dakota	Yes	Sixth	Four and one-half	Five	Required	Yes	No	No State adopted text. County adoptions. Several used in elementary grades	Text may be in hands of pupils or teachers
Texas	Yes	Sixth	Nine	Five	Required	Yes	Grades made in class used	State adopted text book	Text in hands of pupils
Tennessee	Yes	Sixth	School Term varies from 5 to 9 months	Five	Required	Yes	Examination at close of Sixth Grade	State adopted text book	Text in hands of pupils
Utah	Yes	Fourth	Nine months with divics	Five	Required	As part of U.S. History Examination	As part of U. S. History examination	No adopted text. Reference books used by teachers only	Reference books in hands of teacher only. Oral teaching of the subject
Vermont	Yes	Sixth and Seventh	Optional	Optional ;	Required	Yes	No	No one adopted State History. Several used extensively	Reference books in libraries, texts and stories in hands of teachers and pupils
Virginia	Yes	Fifth	Nine	Not specified	Required	Yes	Yes	State adopted text book	Text in hands of pupils
Washington	Yes	First to eighth grade incl.	Varies with localities	Varies with localities	Required	Yes	Yes, with U.S. History	No State adopted text. Various county boards adopt the texts	Varies in different districts. In some pupils use text in others in hand of teacher
West Virginia	Yes	Sixth, Seventh and Eighth	Not specified	Not specified	Required	Yes, with U.S. History	Yes	State adopted text book	Text used by pupils
Wisconsin	Yes	Fifth, Sixth and Seventh	Not fixed	Not fixed	Required	Yes	Yes	No state adopted text. Local adoptions, several texts used	Text used by pupils
Wyoming	Yes	Fourth and Eighth	Usually about one-half of each year	Not designated	Required in state course	No	Yes, with U.S. History	State adopted text book	Text used by pupils



has been promoting the study of state history for several years by distributing programs for the observance of certain days in schools. A personal letter from the office of Walter E. Ranger, Commissioner of Education in Rhode Island, states:

"This year 73,000 copies of each of these programs are going into the schools and thence into the homes of Rhode Island."

Connecticut uses a somewhat similar plan. Pamphlets containing material on both state and town history, as well as lists of books for supplementary reading are furnished the schools by the state department of education. A textbook is also used in some of the schools.

In New York, the approach to state history is made from a biographical viewpoint as a part of the United States history. In a personal letter, Avery W. Skinner, Director of the Examinations and Inspections Division, State Department of Education, writes as follows:

"May I say that we do not have in this state a separate course in state history. Our syllabus provides for emphasis upon state and local history, and in the fifth and sixth grades of the elementary school where the subject is approached from a biographical point of view many of the historic characters associated with this state are studied. In the seventh and eighth grades also a portion of our syllabus is devoted to state history, but with these exceptions there is no specific syllabus in the subject or definite allotment of time given to it."

Relative to the situation in New Jersey, the Commissioner of Education writes:

"State history is taught in connection with other history. A special textbook is not used. . . . In a general way, we are teaching the history of New Jersey through supplementary reading. A book entitled 'Stockton's Stories of New Jersey,' published by the American Book Company, is used for supplementary reading."

The southern and western states emphasize state history. Every state that seceded at the time of the Civil War teaches from one half year to two years of state history. In many of these states the people are very proud of the history of their respective states. Anna Webb Blanton, State Superintendent of Texas, writes:

"It was no trouble to answer the questions—on the contrary, a pleasure, as Texans are proud of the fact that Texas has an interesting history."

The same feeling exists in Virginia, Kansas and a number of other states.

In some of the younger states of the west material for state history is very limited. The Deputy State Superintendent of North Dakota writes:

"We do not teach state history in our public schools as a separate subject. As you know, North Dakota is one of the younger states of our union, and it is almost too early for us to expect a textbook on the history of North Dakota suitable for use in our schools. We have not made history enough to warrant the publication of such a volume. . . . Teachers give instruction in local history, but as yet

it is not taught as a separate subject, nor is it a required subject either for graduation from the grades or high school."

#### GRADES IN WHICH STATE HISTORY IS TAUGHT

State history is taught in all grades from the first to the eighth. In Washington, where county adoptions prevail, the state history is taught in any grade or grades from the first to the eighth inclusive. Three states teach their history in four different grades, while the same number of states permit their teachers to use from one to three grades for this subject. In fourteen states the study of state history may be completed in two grades. Sixteen states use only one grade for this subject. This situation is not so bad as it seems, however, as several grades are often combined in the rural schools. Moreover, state history may be taught in a number of grades but only for a very brief period.

State history is taught more often in the sixth than in any other grade. Eight states teach their local history entirely in the sixth grade. Seventeen others teach local history here, though not offering the entire course at this level.

The data which were obtained indicate the tendency to place the study of state history at a lower grade level. Ten states teach state history in lower grades today than they did from one to thirteen years ago. Seven states indicate no change. One New England state has pushed its history forward from the fifth to the sixth and seventh grades. More or less complete data, relative to this point of grade placement were obtained for eighteen states.

#### TIME DEVOTED TO STATE HISTORY

As indicated in Table I, the number of months state history is taught per year in each state varies greatly. The tendency in the southern states is to give from one-half to a full year of this subject. In several of them state history may be taught as much as two years. Three of these states require only a half year of it. In the western states the practice varies from nine months for state history and civics in New Mexico to no definite requirement in Montana. In New England the practice varies from Maine with a requirement of at least one school term to Massachusetts with no regulation whatever. The amount of time in the northern and central states is not fixed as a rule.

The number of recitations per week varies much, not only in different states, but often within the same state. In thirteen states there are five recitations per week. Seven of these states have courses in state history for the whole school year. Five provide for state history one half the school year, one for a period of two months in the grades with one year in the high school, and the other does not have the number of months fixed. In six states the number of recitations varies from two to five. In the larger number of the states "not specified," "varies," "no requirement," or "optional" was the answer to this question. In a number of the states the state history is read in class when the pupils have nothing else to do or it is on the supplementary list for home reading.

### IS STATE HISTORY REQUIRED?

The fact that a state legislature in a burst of local pride or enthusiasm passed a law requiring state history to be taught in the public schools of its own state does not always mean that a special textbook for state history is used or particular emphasis is placed upon the subject.

For example, *The School Law of Nevada*, 1922 edition, under the head of "An act to promote Americanism in the schools of the State of Nevada," approved February 24, 1921, reads as follows:

"American history, history of the State of Nevada, and American civil government shall be taught in all of the graded schools, high schools, and colleges in the State of Nevada, especially scientific schools excepted."<sup>6</sup>

Information from W. J. Hunting, state superintendent of schools, indicates that there is no adopted textbook for state history, that the number of months this subject is taught is not fixed and that "histories and stories of Nevada" are used wherever available. Moreover, there is no mention of state history in the *Nevada State Course of Study* in use in 1922.

To illustrate further, the information from the superintendent's office of the State of California is that state history is "required by law." Job Wood, Jr., Deputy Superintendent of Public Instruction in that state, writes:

"Regarding state history permit me to state that it is usually taught in connection with the United States history . . . at one time we had a supplement to the history book giving the state history. . . . Just now we are not carrying any supplement to the history."

On the other hand, a state may have no law concerning the teaching of state history and yet this subject may be taught quite extensively from locally adopted texts throughout the state. Francis G. Blair, State Superintendent of Illinois, writes in a personal letter:

"I am sending you under another cover a copy of our School Law, in which you will discover that the Boards of Directors or the Boards of Education, as the case may be, are authorized to adopt such courses of study as in their judgment will best suit their locality."

An examination of *The School Law of Illinois*,<sup>7</sup> 1921 edition, corroborates this statement. The law states:

"Boards of Education or Boards of School Directors are empowered, and it shall be their duty to adopt such textbooks . . . needful for use in said schools."

A careful canvas of the situation shows that most of the counties and local districts in Illinois do teach state history. Mather's *The Making of Illinois* is the adopted text in some localities. *Illinois* by Grace Humphrey, is used extensively. The investigation indicates that Illinois teaches more state history as such than do Nevada or California with special laws that require the teaching of this subject. Their practice is to claim they teach it when they teach United

States history.

A state law may not especially require state history but there may be a provision requiring the schools in the state to follow the course of study as outlined by the state superintendent. If this subject is included, it must be taught. Michigan law requires all school districts except city districts to follow the course of study published by the Superintendent of Public Instruction. The course of study does provide for state history in that state,<sup>8</sup> although there is no adopted text.

To the question whether or not state history was required, thirty-one states answered "yes." Three other states answered as follows: "Yes, as a part of United States history," "Yes, to a certain extent," and "Yes, in eighth grade, but optional in the ninth." In nine states this subject is optional or not required. One state considers state history and United States history as the same thing so far as that state is concerned. Two states have not yet worked out their course for state history, but plan to teach this subject in the near future.

### TEACHERS' EXAMINATIONS IN STATE HISTORY

A state law that requires teachers to pass an examination in state history to secure a certificate sometimes has a very marked influence on the interest manifested in the subject. Doane Robinson, Secretary of the South Dakota State Historical Society, and author of one of the state history texts used in his state, writes in a personal letter:

"More than twenty years ago, in revising the laws pertaining to certification of teachers the legislature, good naturedly, if not ignorantly, inserted a provision requiring examination in state history. That provision at once created wide interest in the study and has had a marked influence in developing a loyal citizenship. So far as I am informed, state pride is more dominant here than elsewhere."

In twenty states examination in state history as a special subject is required to secure any grade of certificate obtainable by that process. In two states questions may be included for such examinations. In Missouri examination is required for state certificate only. In eight states questions on this subject are included as a part of the United States history examination. In Connecticut state supervising agents are required to pass an examination in the history of education in that state. Fourteen states require no form of state history examination for teacher certification. Two states have their state history courses in process of formation and could give no definite information.

### PUPIL EXAMINATIONS IN STATE HISTORY

Table I shows that in thirteen states pupils pass an examination in this subject at the close of the eighth grade to secure a diploma for graduation from the common schools. In three states, two in the North and one in the South, such questions may or may not be included as the requirement is local. Some of the southern states have no eighth grade common school diploma system as the seventh grade completes their common school work. So six of these

states either give the examination at the close of the seventh grade or pass the pupils without examination on grades made during previous years. Six states (located in the North or West) combine their state history and United States history examinations. Twenty states give no examination in this subject.

#### SUMMARY

1. Every state in the United States has made, or plans to make in the near future, some provision for the teaching of state history. Of these states nineteen have basic state adopted texts, nineteen have local adoptions of state histories or stories, eight provide for incidental teaching or consider state history a part of United States history, and two have not yet worked out their plans for state history.

2. While state history is taught in all grades from the first to the eighth inclusive, the predominate grade is the sixth.

3. The data at hand indicate that the grade tendency for state history teaching is downward. Ten states teach this subject in lower grades than they did twelve years ago. Many syllabi makers indicate a current tendency to place this subject still lower in the grades.

4. Thirty-one states have laws that provide either directly or indirectly for state history. However, the fact that a law provides for this subject does not always mean that a special textbook is used or par-

ticular emphasis is placed on the subject. Other states without such laws may teach more state history.

5. In twenty states, examination in state history as a separate subject is required in order to secure a certificate by that process. In fourteen states such examination in state history as a separate subject or a part of United States history may or may not be included for various forms of certificates. Fourteen states require no examination in this subject for teachers' certificates.

6. While the practice as to pupil examination often varies greatly even within a single state, the replies indicate that less than one half of the states require separate examination in this subject for graduation from the common school.

<sup>1</sup> EDITOR'S NOTE. It has been found impracticable to include in this issue all the excellent tables accompanying Mr. Hann's article.

<sup>2</sup> The data were collected between Feb. 15 and June 1, 1922.

<sup>3</sup> Riley, "Is State History Worth While?" *History Teacher's Magazine*, Vol. II, p. 156.

<sup>4</sup> Tryon, "Materials, Methods and Administration of History Study in the Elementary Schools of the United States," *Indiana University Studies*, Vol. X, No. 9.

<sup>5</sup> Tryon, *op. cit.*, p. 26.

<sup>6</sup> p. 148.

<sup>7</sup> p. 159.

<sup>8</sup> *Manual and Course of Study, Elementary Schools, State of Michigan*, pp. 195 ff.

## An Attainable Program of Social Studies for the High School

BY HOWARD C. HILL, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO HIGH SCHOOL

### THE PROBLEM

The modern school administrator finds himself in much the same predicament as the old woman who lived in a shoe: he finds so many subjects and activities demanding a place in the curriculum that he scarcely knows what to do or how to manage. His efforts to meet this pressure, which has its origin in the highly complex character of present-day life, have resulted in the organization in many high schools of numerous "courses"—classical, literary, commercial—and in the offering of a large number of elective subjects.

While this solution of the problem has met certain important social needs, it has given but partial satisfaction to the exponents of various lines of learning. With a sincere belief in the value of their wares, the advocates of the languages, both ancient and modern, have emphasized the importance of the study of a foreign tongue; the mathematicians have stressed the value of training in mathematics; the scientists have called attention to the fact that we live in a scientific age and that science therefore must be studied; teachers of the manual and household arts have urged the educational value of these activities; instructors in

English have stressed the importance of a mastery of the vernacular; and exponents of the social studies—history, civics, economics, and sociology—have laid emphasis upon the necessity for the inculcation of their subject matter as essential for effective training in citizenship. Naturally, the school administrator has found it impossible, amid this multiplicity of claims, to gratify the demands which each claimant has put forth to what he regards as his rightful and proper share of the estate.

In recent years many of the advocates of the various subjects have apparently awakened to the difficulty of this administrative problem and to the force of the arguments put forth by the sponsors of the other subjects. In 1898, for example, the Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association came out in favor of four years of history in the high school, a position from which the Committee of Five in 1911 receded but slightly. In 1920, however, the Committee on History and Education for Citizenship, while recommending four years of work in the social studies for four-year high schools, provided for only two years of history.<sup>1</sup>

That four years of work in the social studies should be required of high-school pupils is a proposition



which today seems to be gaining in favor. At the same time available evidence indicates that the number of high schools which actually make such a requirement is relatively small. Certainly to expect to secure a greater amount of time for the social sciences—at least for years to come—seems chimerical.

The hope of promoting a four-year program and of indicating a practical way of lessening the administrative burden explains in part the social-science sequence in the University of Chicago High School. This sequence consists of four years of work arranged in the following order: Community Life, Survey of Civilization, Modern History, Modern Problems. Let us now turn to a brief consideration of each of these courses.

#### COMMUNITY LIFE ENGLISH

The course in Community Life is an introductory study of society. It includes such topics as the family, the school, the church, the community and its problems, business and industry, government and political parties. By arrangement with the department of English it is given as a combination course in social science and English and is programmed as Community Life English.<sup>2</sup>

The work in the course is divided into two main phases: the reading phase and the expressional or composition phase. In the reading phase emphasis is placed upon extensive reading in various types of worthy literature rather than upon an intensive study of a few textbooks or classics. With this end in view reading lists containing from fifty to two hundred titles are furnished each pupil as the study of each topic is undertaken. These lists include books on travel, histories, biographies, poems, plays, novels, and short stories as well as references to the more traditional type of material. Each title is included because it is a worthy piece of literature and because in some way it explains or illuminates the topic which is the subject of study. In their selections from these lists pupils are permitted to follow their own tastes in large part. Unity and coherence are given to the work by requiring from all the mastery of the core of material furnished in the text, a feature of the course which has proved essential to its success.

A course of this character cannot be carried on effectively without an abundance of books. An enthusiastic teacher will not allow a lack in this respect to interfere with the enterprise; like Sentimental Tommy he, too, will "find a way." And, fortunately, "the way," as a rule, will not prove hard to find. To quote:

"If books are not forthcoming with as great liberality as the need demands, there are ways of remedying the shortage, which are open in varying degrees to all teachers. The pupils themselves usually have some of the books on the list of readings which they are glad to put at the service of the class. In addition to multiplying the material at hand, this method furnishes a practical opportunity for the cultivation of genuine citizenship. In the second place, the books available can usually be supplemented at the public library. With rare exceptions,

librarians are eager to cooperate with teachers by placing books on reserve, by assisting in the building up of bibliographies, and by loaning quantities of books to the schools. In some communities, the library will loan boxes of books for a month or more and will deliver and call for them without expense to the school. In addition, many states now have library boards or commissions from which loans of books can be obtained in lots of from fifty to one hundred volumes upon the payment of freight charges. Finally, if necessary, it is possible in most communities to give an entertainment, the proceeds of which can be used for the purchase of books for the school library. Thus, by purchase, by the cooperation of pupils, and by the assistance of libraries, an adequate supply of books can be secured."<sup>3</sup>

The wide and varied reading done by the pupils has not only enriched the subject matter of the course, but has served as excellent material for the expressional phase of the work. This is especially true of oral compositions, for pupils have discovered in their reading interesting information and viewpoints, oftentimes unfamiliar to their classmates, which they have been able to present in floor-talks with that enthusiasm which can come only from a genuine audience situation. For written compositions, social-science material has proved to be peculiarly rich in its possibilities. Pupils who have experienced marked difficulty in writing themes of a traditional nature have, as a rule, found little trouble in discovering "something to say" when asked to write an essay, story, one-act play, or a poem, depicting some phase or illustrating some aspect of community life.

The advantages from an administrative viewpoint of a combination course in Social Science and English are obvious. Without adding to the burden or complexity of the curriculum, opportunity is thereby provided for a full year of civics while at the same time the work in English is enriched. The combination, moreover, is a partial realization of the recommendation of the Committee on Social Studies of the National Association of Secondary School Principals that "the time of one-half unit a year" should be given to the social studies "in each of the years from the seventh grade through the twelfth."<sup>4</sup> It is one step towards the establishment of a four-year program of social studies for every high-school pupil.

#### SURVEY OF CIVILIZATION

If one may judge from the reports of various committees which have made recommendations on the matter during the last six years and from existing educational conditions and tendencies in the country at large, two years is the maximum amount of history which will be required for graduation from high school for a considerable time to come. If this is the case, it becomes a matter of consequence what the content of these two years of history shall be.

Few if any would be willing to discard American history; not many would consent to the omission of modern European history; and there are large numbers who would stoutly defend the educational value

of a study of ancient and medieval times. It is apparent that it is impossible to give a full year to each of these blocks of history if the time available is limited to a total of two years. What then is the best solution of the problem?

To this question different persons will doubtless give different answers. The solution reached in the University High School at the present time is summed up in two full-year courses. The first of these is called Survey of Civilization; the second, Modern History.<sup>5</sup>

The course in Survey of Civilization consists of a series of cross-sectional studies of certain typical civilizations of the past. The period covered by the course extends roughly from the earliest times to approximately 1750 A. D. The work is organized on a topical rather than on a chronological basis. Among the topics treated are Primitive Life, Egyptian Civilization, Greek Culture, Roman Life and Institutions, Medieval Civilization, and American Colonial Life. In the study of each of these topics, the life and customs of the people, their industries, religious beliefs, government, social classifications, art, literature, and educational institutions receive chief emphasis. Each topic is joined to the succeeding one by a narrative thread in such a way as to bring out the continuity of history. The main aim throughout, however, is to stress those phases of life which make the past intelligible and to bring out those features which contribute notably to an understanding of the present.<sup>6</sup>

#### MODERN HISTORY

As indicated above, the latter part of the course in Survey of Civilization includes a study of American colonial life and institutions and brings within its compass an examination of the American Revolution. This combination of European and American history is an outstanding feature of the succeeding course in Modern History. To quote from a previous article:

"The advantages in this organization of modern history are, first, that when studied after the course in Survey of Civilization, it completes a unified and coherent view of the evolution of human progress; second, that it enables pupils who can study history only one year to obtain a fair understanding of both modern European and American history; and, third, that it presents the development of the United States in its true light—as a phase of world history and not as an isolated narrative. Such topics as the Industrial Revolution, the Monroe Doctrine, immigration, financial panics, the silver question, imperialism, and the World War can, in fact, be understood aright only when seen from a world viewpoint and in their international aspects."<sup>7</sup>

Beginning with a survey of the Industrial Revolution, the topics studied during the year are the French Revolution, the Era of Metternich, the Development of Nationality, the Slavery Controversy, the Westward Movement, the Expansion of Industrial Nations, and the World War and World Reconstruction. Like the course in Survey of Civilization, the work is organized on a topical basis, but unlike it the chief

emphasis is placed on narrative elements. This change in stress arises from the fact that in the period of a century and a half covered by the course the marked transformations in civilization are too few in number to justify a study with them as the chief points of emphasis and—what is more important—from the belief that as one approaches the present the narrative becomes of enhanced importance in explaining the world of today and its problems. The relation between the form of organization and the methods of instruction used in this course appears in the following quotation:

"In the organizing and teaching of this course a constant effort is made to link the past with the present. The topical arrangement of material is well adapted to fulfill this purpose. For example, in teaching the Industrial Revolution—the first topic, in the course—it is easy to point out that, although historians refer ordinarily to the changes which took place in industry between 1750 and 1830 as the Industrial Revolution, we are still living in the same great era; that the invention in recent years of the automobile, the multipress, the airplane, the internal-combustion gas engine, and radio telephony constitute in reality developments similar in character and equal in importance, in a sense, to the spinning jenny, the power loom, the cotton gin, the steamboat, and the locomotive.

"In like manner it is easy to show, on the one hand, the connection between the principles of liberty, fraternity, and equality of the French Revolution and the principles of the Allies in the World War; and on the other, the similarity between the philosophy and policies of the ruling powers in the Age of Metternich and those for which the Central Powers stood during the late world catastrophe. In studying the fourth topic, also, pupils have no difficulty in recognizing the operation of the force of nationality, which was so potent in unifying Germany and Italy, in the developments which are taking place in our own day in Ireland, Poland, Greece, Armenia, and China.

"The connection between the Slavery Controversy of two generations ago and the negro problem and Solid South of the first quarter of the Twentieth Century is also easily discernible. Equally apparent—when pointed out—is the relation between the Westward Movement with its wastefulness and the conservation activities of late years. Comment on the last two topics, in so far as they touch the matter under discussion, is unnecessary: each of them is so closely joined to current problems and events that the linking of past and present is practically unavoidable. In cases like these certain phases of contemporary history form integral parts of the subject matter of a unit; in other instances the relation between earlier times and the world of today is brought out by the instructor. It is obvious that the constant connection or union of the happenings and movements of bygone days with those of our own time—a feature which constitutes so important a characteristic of this course—tends both to promote an historical attitude of mind in the pupils who study

the subject and to give them a fairly intelligent appreciation of the world in which they live."<sup>8</sup>

#### MODERN PROBLEMS

The concluding unit in the social-science sequence of the University High School is called Modern Problems. This course consists of a study of certain important political, economic, and social problems of modern life. Emphasis is placed not so much on the acquisition of a body of factual information about these problems as on the comprehension of certain fundamental principles or laws which underlie human relationships and which are manifest in the topics selected for study. The main purpose of the course, in fact, is to provide training which shall be comparable, when due allowance is made for differences in the nature of the subject matter, to that now furnished in such natural sciences as physics and chemistry. In other words, the object in view is to give the pupils who study the course, an outlook upon the social world similar to that which they receive of the physical world as a result of the study of astronomy, chemistry, or physics.

The course is at present divided into two main parts: first, that which deals primarily with civil and governmental matters; and second, that which is devoted chiefly to economic problems and principles. No textbook is used in the course, and all work is done by the laboratory method. In addition to the use of a large number of books, pamphlets, and periodicals, considerable mimeographed material is furnished the pupils. Certain phases of the topics studied are presented to the class in informal lectures.

By way of summary it may be said that the curriculum of the University High School provides for a four-year sequence in social science,<sup>9</sup> but that as a result of the combination of Community Life and English, only three years, in addition to the time ordinarily devoted to the study of English, are needed to complete the work. Two of the four blocks in this sequence are devoted primarily to history; two are centered upon the needs of the present. The

work begins with an introductory study of the community life of today; it then provides for a survey of the chief phases of human progress from the earliest times to the present; finally, it culminates in an investigation and analysis of our civil and economic institutions and of the principles and laws which enter into modern organized society. As a whole it offers an attainable program of social studies for the high school.

<sup>8</sup> Other alternatives were also suggested. Although this report was not adopted by the American Historical Association; it undoubtedly reflected the views of a considerable group in that organization. The report was published in the *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* (March-June, 1921).

<sup>9</sup> A detailed description of the administration of this course, the objectives in view, the methods of instruction employed, together with illustrations of the results attained will be found in my "Opportunities for Correlation between Community Life and English," *School Review* (January-March, 1922), Vol. XXX, pp. 24-36, 118-126, 175-186.

<sup>10</sup> *Loc. cit.* p. 36.

<sup>11</sup> *School Review*, XXVIII (April, 1920), 283-297.

<sup>12</sup> The reasons which led to the organization of these courses and the connection between them are given more adequately in my "Two-Year Sequence in High-School History," *Studies in Secondary Education*, University of Chicago High School, (November, 1922), Vol. I.

<sup>13</sup> For a detailed description of this course see A. F. Barnard's "Survey of Civilization," *Studies in Secondary Education*, University of Chicago High School, (November, 1922), vol. I.

<sup>14</sup> Hill, "A Two-Year Sequence in High-School History," *Studies in Secondary Education*, University of Chicago High School, November, 1922), Vol. I.

<sup>15</sup> Hill, "A Course in Modern History," *Studies in Secondary Education*, University of Chicago High School, (November, 1922), Vol. I. This article describes in detail the content of the course, the materials used, and the method of instruction followed.

<sup>16</sup> In addition to the regular four-year sequence described in this article the following courses are given: Ancient History, intended primarily for pupils who expect to attend institutions which still insist upon the subject for entrance credit; The Worker in Modern Society, an experimental course in industrial economics; and Business Administration, an experimental course dealing with practical phases of business management. Each of the last two courses continues for one semester only.

## Teachers for Democracy<sup>1</sup>

ALEXIS F. LANGE, DEAN OF SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA

After September 1, 1922, seekers after license to practice in California secondary schools must show that they have had "a teacher's course in citizenship, presented in such manner as to qualify the teacher to appreciate the social purpose of his subject and to make instruction in all classes and activities contribute to the education and training of the youth for good citizenship." Thenceforth, so I would read and state the pith of the new rule framed by a State Board mindful of the welfare of our democratic social order, only those need apply for certification who have been well started toward becoming teachers for Democracy and only those teacher-training bodies need apply for approval which have set afoot specific plans for initiating the process. Implied is, besides,

that those who choose and captain teachers—this means you, chiefly—will hereafter get and further develop teachers for Democracy. Implied is also, I take it, that although the concept "good citizenship" may include 57 varieties of meanings, the idea of true progress in living together on ever-rising levels shall fix the far goal.

Now, whether or not this State Board prescription will be taken by every one concerned without sugar, I, for one, receive it with whole-hearted gladness. Else I should be false to all that has become pivotal in my best knowledge and belief. So will very likely all who try to keep eyes and ears open and at times use their cerebrums to think with, while on the road to Democracy with the rest of their



people. Few school men and women, at any rate, will back away in fright and join a dear old ossified professor of mine who never failed to gasp out in the presence of what looked like a new thought: "Gentlemen, gentlemen, is not this an innovation?"

But when the State Board sends forth the command: "Let there be light," teacher trainers may not be able at once to recite in answering chorus, "And there was light, hallelujah!" They have to reckon, first of all, with the fact that the making of American leading citizens, enlightened, ardent and girt for action on the road to Democracy, is not as yet generally one of the controlling purposes of our American universities. Many other reasons apart, the Great War did not make our universities safe for Democracy. More lovingly than before, a cynic might observe, they go on hatching only the eggs laid by the German university cuckoo in the nest of our own college bird. These eggs—research and specialized expertness—are "perfectly good" eggs and are to be prized greatly, as means to human ends in our national life; but they are not the eggs out of which to hatch American leading citizens. At all events, he would bear false witness who would testify that our American universities purposefully and planfully function so as to instruct and train students for clear—and foresighted teamwork for the common good of our America and thus of the world. Hence teacher trainers whose theory of education has become Americanized are usually voices crying in the scholastic wilderness, and so, aside from cheering but lonely signs of promise here and there, where are the courses that narrow the gap to be bridged in a two-unit course between the classroom life and works of the student and the end sought by the State Board?

Secondly, we university teacher trainers have to reckon with our own state of unpreparedness for an adequate course in civic education, however willing we may be to confess our sins and to gather on the mourners' bench with a view to beginning a new life. Has our own intra-school education been such as to leave us with human instead of merely academic minds? Most of us, I am ready to believe, have indeed discovered America, while seeking something else, like Columbus, but how many of us can fairly claim to have become explorers, pioneers, and missionaries thereof in the practice of our profession? Are we quick at detecting the counterfeit or debased Americanism in circulation as a 100 per cent mintage? Have we earned the right, because of the insight and appreciation we have won, to act as guides on the rough trails of social science to the vocation—every American's vocation—of becoming not a stationary but an advancing citizen, one who will do better things in better ways with and for his fellows on the road to Democracy?

In view of such and kindred hindrances, which to be sure may mean only that growing pains or rather out-growing pains are coming on, the present state of affairs appears to be that the State Department prescribes a brief course that students are not prepared to receive and that their teachers have first to

learn how to give. They are ordered to get into the "dinkiest" Ford they can invent, buy, borrow, or steal, and then drive, with dim headlights at best, in near-darkness over country without state highways to make travel fairly easy and safe.

What is to be done? Perhaps sufficient unto this day and half hour is the question: What is to be done first? The answer must be, I think: Let us school men and women go up in the air—as airplane scouts, for the purpose of securing data and directions for the road maps to be followed in the course in civic education for all prospective teachers. If this counsel is sound my present notes and queries concerning the organization and conduct of the course must be looked upon as a first report to a committee of the whole by one of the scouts.

Unless there is something wrong with my eyes and field glasses, we must start—at Berkeley anyway—along two parallel routes. One of these is that of readings which will bring about contacts between the minds and hearts of students and the minds and hearts of those who have earned the right to voice judgment and counsel as to our living together as American men, women, and children. Among such people of light and leading may be found perhaps even some erring but honest Bookshelviki. To forestall a menu of hash, however, a syllabus, preferably in challenging question or problem form, will have to be organized and to go with it, a bibliographical guide, both covering the factors that make or mar progressive group-life—eugenic, hygienic, economic, group-mental, group-aesthetic, group-moral and religious, historical, governmental, philosophical, etc.—both bearing explicitly or implicitly on the theory and art of *civiculture*, both shaped throughout by the integrating purpose of by and by getting adequately trained teachers for Democracy, each of whom shall incessantly further the collective advance on the road to Democracy, himself or herself striving continuously to see the way ahead "steadily and to see it whole." Of course, such a guide-syllabus will in the nature of things be at first hardly more than embryonic. Zeus alone ever underwent the experience of seeing a panoplied goddess, ready for business, suddenly pop out of one head. But, surely, it cannot be merely a pipe-dream that the teacher-trainers and teachers generally will evolve and perfect gradually a tool subserving adequately the proper conduct of the specified course and at the same time, besides, the civic aims of teachers' study circles—may their tribe increase—teachers' institutes and conventions, perhaps even of the junior college department of *civiculture*, departments ardently hoped for, but, alas, as yet unseen.

The second route is that of lectures, alternating, when numbers permit, with the far better way of cooperative class exercises, which by nature exemplify the process of achieving Democracy. Here we shall obviously have to deal, first, with the why and whither of civic education, if the meaning of Democracy is to be fulfilled, gradatim; secondly, with the whereabouts of the American people in these years of growth and grace with reference to such fulfillment;

thirdly, with the how of civic education, if there are to be any next steps at all and then neither the steps of milling cattle, nor backward steps, but steps forward. To speak more bookishly, Part I may well be labeled Theory of Civic Education. It should, I think, stand chiefly for an attempt to locate as definitely as may be by means of the instruments of knowledge and perfected thinking available at present, the major and minor objectives for a hierarchy of clean-cut purposes. As likely as not, it will prove most convenient and clarifying to group these objectives as knowledge, feeling and will objectives, the loadstar of the whole exploration being of course from first to last the Democracy-creating American citizen of the more or less immediate future. And—lest we forget—in developing a theory meant to be set to work, one may not altogether overlook the precept: While in Luna do as the Lunatics do.

Part II, a part to be handled with care and brevity, may be called An Inspectorial Survey of the actual situation. In such an undertaking, the objectives of civic education coinciding of course with the direction a people on the road to Democracy must follow, serve as touchstones of things as they are or appear, for without thought-forged criteria we have nothing better than unsound opinions or, what is worse, heat but no light. For the evaluation of the governmental functioning of Democracy James Bryce has set a humanly perfect example. Would that his mantle might descend upon the teacher-trainer while he heads a tour of inspection! His itinerary will inevitably include the form and functions of the present American school system. Such questions must be pressed as: Are the opportunities it offers now continuous, complete, equitably distributed? Does its management make for Czarism or for Sovietism or for Democracy? What remains to be done to make each school a national American Democracy-creating institution?

Now the reason for the existence of Parts I and II lies in Part III, The Art of Civic Education. Over the trails of fact, insights, and basic principles found or blazed with and for prospective teachers these are to join forces with the glorious band of pioneers who in California as elsewhere are Americanizing the American native, despite the method of trial and error most of them are as yet compelled to use. But here the teacher-trainer soon finds himself in a jungle of questions thornier than any encountered before. How is he to reveal to the future teacher for Democracy the "social purpose of his subject" so that he will appreciate it and then fare forth, St. Paul-like, and set the revelations to work in the class room? Toward which of the objectives of civiculture shall each precious subject be made to go without cruelty to the animal? How shall each teacher co-act in order that all may move forward as a champion football team to the goal? The process of developing citizens must obviously go on without a break, but how is a unifying and correlating course to be devised, beginning, let

us say, where the elementary school leaves off and continuing to where the junior college ends and how is it to be made a part of existing curricula? What are the experts, who, to be sure, do not belong in the story I am trying to tell now, to do with such a course? How are all school activities of teachers and pupils to be unified with reference to the vocation of citizenship and so correlated with the activities of adult Americans that each school-group becomes a vital group-unit of a nation dedicated to learning how to live the creed of Democracy?

Facing such unsolved problems the teacher-trainer cannot but appeal to school men and women as did the man of St. Paul's vision: Come over into Macedonia and help us! A minute or two will suffice for a glimpse of the assistance needed at one point—Latin. I single out Latin because it reminds many of you of a misspent youth and some of you are certain it is dead, for was it not killed before your eyes by the raving ablative absolute maniacs, your teachers?

But might not Latin come to life the instant Latin teachers give their minds to some of the objectives of civic education and then seek out the paths linking Latin with the vocation of American citizenship? From this point of view, the traditional order Caesar, Cicero, Virgil furnishes an almost providential sequence. Caesar's Commentaries might almost bear the sub-title "Early Stages of Social Progress." Here is an account of the collision, so often repeated down to date, between barbarism and civilization. Incidentally we learn that even the barbarians of Gaul had to deal with the strictly up-to-date question of how to get rid of Roman bootleggers. Cicero deals with more advanced modes of associated living. He introduces us to the economic, political and other struggles of a would-be republic, many of them closely analogous to those of today. We, too, have our Catilines, and who knows but Cicero himself is even now impersonating our own recurrent William Jennings Bryan. In Virgil, finally, a nation becomes articulate as to itself, and its neighbors as to its motives and patterns of conduct, as to the deep-down conditions and causes of national greatness or decay. Now, do not these obvious opportunities just cry to be embraced? But how can they be brought to rich fruition unless Latin teachers, actual as well as prospective, work out together a manual, let us say, of true and tried problems, exercises, methods, suggestions, relating to the specific civic habits of thought, feeling and action, that Latin is fitted to promote?

Every other subject on the secondary school program, however, not to speak of every intra- and extra-group activity of the school, calls imperatively for similar treatment. Think of what might not be done for the vocation of being an American citizen through a manual developed by the concerted efforts of the teachers entrusted with physical education and all that is implied therein! As many of you know the Department of Education at Berkeley has for several years past been endeavoring to set agoing what I have

named a Research Syndicate, of which, ideally, every teacher would be an active member, each getting more light and letting it shine. Well, such a syndicate would render a simply priceless, patriotic service, if during the decade before us, it achieved the manuals of civiculture I am trying to describe. And how the teacher-trainer conducting the course prescribed by the State Board would rejoice! How he would be inspired to pass on, if possible, from the glory of the imperfect to the next greater, the glory of the less imperfect!

But the ways indicated or hinted at for bringing up teachers for Democracy including ourselves, radiate from a common hub of starting points of postulates, given us by science and faith. Lest this report from above—I refer of course to my airplane and not to Sinai—seem much longer than the actual time you are resolved to undergo, I submit several of these postulates in the form of tentative propositions, which I think should serve as a lamp unto our feet.

1. *The teacher for Democracy teaches youth, not subjects.* Cardinal in his practice and the "hot spot of his consciousness" is the insight that each boy or girl is the priceless and measureless end of his ministry and the further insight that each boy and girl lives, moves and has his being in human interactions and relationships. A man without a country cannot be a man. On these two insights hang the law and gospel of Democracy. Furthermore, He knows that each boy and girl was born an immigrant and came with a bundle of queerly-assorted instincts more or less social, gathered during the long journey of his or her family from the amoeba to man. If now the teacher for Democracy could only add "second sight" to his equipment or the ability to cast a true horoscope for America and for his young Americans, he could hope to lead them sagaciously to the coincidence of the roads to Democracy and to wholeness of manhood and womanhood, or if you will, life, liberty and happiness. But there is at least a chance for the teacher of lads and lasses, while the teacher of subjects is helpless and hopeless, if not directly anti-social, anti-democratic.

2. *The teacher for Democracy never forgets that he is a United States Ambassador sent by adult America, the America of today, to young America, the America of tomorrow.* What else can be the bed-rock meaning of his teacher's certificate and his oath of allegiance? Proudly conscious of the fact, it becomes a matter of *noblesse oblige* with him to understand the creed of Democracy by the light social science, social psychology, social ethics, and political science, are capable of furnishing today, to deepen his sense of oneness with his people and to appreciate sympathetically and lovingly its approximation in fact to its more or less thought-out purposes. When he has occasion to use the slogan: "Government rests on the consent of the governed," he has in mind the consent of the quick and the dead and the unborn, but not being a standpatter, never the consent of the dead alone. Being not only a bearer of the word, but a doer, his own character and conduct come pro-

gressively nearer to agreement with his mission as ambassador. He becomes indeed an American leading citizen, a citizen leading youth onward and upward on the road to Democracy.

3. *The teacher for Democracy never forgets that Democracy means essentially not a good and perfect gift bequeathed by the fathers, but a progressive achievement of developing ideals.* Not every "self-evident truth" was mentioned in the Declaration of Independence. Four generations later nothing seems more "self-evident" than that "the old order changeth" both as to thought and its embodiment. Every growing boy or girl is an illustration of out-growing. Even China has stood pat only a thousand years or more. The problem for the teacher of Democracy is, therefore, not how to prevent change, but how to make change mean the next step forward. This applies to the creed of democracy no less than to its observances and ritual, to its ideals no less than to its machinery and technique. Accordingly, the teacher for Democracy cannot but be guided by the insight that all men are born equally ignorant and helpless and that the ideas and ideals and the practice represented by such words as equality, freedom, brotherhood, self-government, popular sovereignty must be renewed and re-expressed in timely ways from generation to generation. And so he would be disloyal to the Constitution if he ever deviated in thought or act from its true principle of progressive change according to progressive knowledge and belief. He may be conservative and so counsel: "Go slow, safety first." He may be liberal and advise: "Go as fast as your people can follow." He may be even radical and exceed the speed limit. Public opinion will catch him if he does. But he betrays those who appointed him ambassador if he says: "At this spot on the road to Democracy let us stop and rest forever. What has posterity done for us that we should keep going?"

4. *The teacher for Democracy is international because he is sturdily and staunchly national.* Among our imperishable national gems is found the Declaration of Independence. Recent years have added the Declaration of Interdependence, although no Thomas Jefferson has as yet cut and polished the rough diamond. That it exists, however, is amply attested by the League of Nations and the results of the Disarmament Conference. The teacher for Democracy loves both declarations and takes the consequences. To him a world caste system, each nation a caste separated from the rest by rigid barriers, is as repugnant as an American caste system. He regards the Americanism that does not include all nations in good will as a denial of Democracy, as poorly camouflaged Prussianism. It suggests the Democracy of the professional criminal class in which the many virtues within the group are all pointed against the community as a whole. But whether the millennium is far off or at hand, the teacher for Democracy accepts as another "self-evident" truth that only a free, strong, self-respecting, and self-determining nation can do anything worth while towards a federation of the world and the parliament of man. Hence, he does



not object even to the maxim: "My country right or wrong: still my country," provided it is properly fumigated and disinfected, and insists that an American citizen trying to live the creed of Democracy, which is universal but may take on many forms, must by virtue of his profession be first national and then international.

To this report by your scout, I wish to add a question which persists in turning up. Cannot we teachers work out together a plan for adoption by our lay fellow-citizens, whereby admission to adult citizenship at the age of twenty-one might become a public solemn state function and rite? Why should not each Fourth of July be the occasion for initiation ceremonies, for a civic commencement, one infinitely more significant than the commencements at which sheepskins and doctors' hoods and oratorical platitudes are delivered? To my mind this would be a most fitting thing to do even before we realize an adequate course of instruction and training from infancy to the end of the junior college period.

Dogmatic, as some of my statements have been, I

hope that they have not given you the impression that you were being browbeaten and perhaps even high-browbeaten into agreement. On the other hand, I am not very much afraid that you will do unto me as the Gileadites did when they found a man that could not say "Shibboleth" properly. "They took him and slew him at the passages of Jordan." At all events, we agree that all of us are both called and chosen to be teachers for Democracy and that not one of us could hope for a finer epitaph in the grateful memory of the adult America of the future than that inscribed on Giordano Bruno's monument: "Raised by the generation which he foresaw."

<sup>1</sup> Editorial Note. Reprinted by courtesy of *The Sierra Educational News*. Address delivered at the annual convention of High School Principals, Pasadena, April 10, 1922. There is no state in which more attention is given to the training of teachers than in California. For a number of years all prospective teachers have been required by state law to show a proficiency in the use of the English language and such physical health as will insure efficiency. It is now made a requirement that every prospective teacher for any of the grades shall show some training in sound civic thought and ideals. Attention need not be called to the extreme difficulty of administering this requirement,—even in devising instruction for those who wish to meet it fully. In the foregoing paper Professor Lange, who took a leading part in setting up the requirement, presents some of his views on the subject.

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## Book Reviews

*The Foundations of New England.* By James Truslow Adams. Atlantic Monthly Press, Boston, 1921. 482 pp. \$4.00.

In these days of wrangling groups of propagandists, racial, religious, political, sectional, economic, and "patriotic," each bent upon exalting itself at all costs, it is refreshing to find an historian introducing his work with the bold statement that "We cannot understand the present unless we understand the past, and we cannot understand the past if we lie about it, make pretty traditions or epics of a false patriotism." Adding to this scientific temper thorough research and an entertaining style, Mr. Adams has produced a remarkably interesting and informing volume. It fairly won the Pulitzer Prize within a few months of publication.

The volume opens with a chapter on "The American Background," an excellent summary of the environmental influences, followed by two chapters giving the imperial setting, and the recurrence of this point of view, with one of the best brief accounts of Mercantilism yet written, makes the book something more than a local history though it must rank as the standard work on early New England. The author has studied to good advantage such leading scholars in the field as Osgood, Andrews, and Beer, and a wide range of monographic material, while for the local history he writes almost entirely from primary sources. The time-honored idealizations and sentimentalities of the New England school are brushed aside, and while most of the details recorded are familiar to scholars, the story is effectively recast and the emphasis and interpretation are fresh.

Mr. Adams shows us the Puritans in England as a very small minority in the church (though later the political party known by that name was much larger), and far less concerned with reform than with a determination to force their views on the nine-tenths or more who disagreed with them and to gain control of the Church. They suffered very little from persecution, and owing to their subsidies to Puritan clergymen it was very profitable for the latter to be non-conformist. Despite his occasional "torturing self-examinations," the Puritan ordinarily felt "the comfortable assurance that, although the bulk of his neighbors were going to hell, he himself was one of the everlasting saints," that his own interpretation of Scripture was final "not merely for himself but for the entire community," that he had the right and duty, as God's elect, to regulate the minutest details of his neighbor's private conduct in a way that neither political nor ecclesiastical despotism had been accustomed to attempt. The New England Puritan strove to keep the control of the church and state in the hands of a small oligarchy, following a ruthless policy of repression that produced not universal morality but "a vast deal of hypocrisy," and by forbidding harmless recreation "fostered greatly the grosser forms of vice." Even the leader of the gentler and less intolerant Pilgrims declared that in no other

place he had known or heard of was unnamable crime so frequent as in New England, and he correctly guessed the cause.

The book is devoted chiefly to Massachusetts whose dominant position and influence perhaps justify the proportions, though some readers will wish that more were told about the other New England colonies. It is still more regrettable that a considerable field of social history, education, and economic conditions (which receive little attention save in connection with imperial relations), are so scantily treated. And what a pity that such a work does not give us a set of lifelike portraits of the leading figures of the drama, even though drawn with less than the skill of a Strachy! Mr. Adams sees that the Puritan spirit has survived in America, but he makes no comment on the War and post-War hysteria with its panic repressions.

J. M. G.

*An Introduction to the History of History.* By James T. Shotwell. New York, Columbia University Press, 1922. 339 pp. \$4.00.

Professor Shotwell contributes this volume to the series "Records of Civilization: Sources and Studies," of which he is Editor. Except for the last chapter, it deals only with ancient historiography, a field which the author disclaims as his own while regretting that some specialist in ancient history has not written an account from which he can quote. In spite of this modest apology, Professor Shotwell shows familiarity with the sources and mastery of the bibliography; and he presents the interpretations of their own times by the historians of antiquity in the light of his own wide knowledge of medieval and modern interpretations. And besides, he has "the allurements of style and often of imaginative appeal which win readers for history."

After defining history, the author divides its scope into the "research which is science and the narration which is art." He shows how long it was before myth and legend could be properly criticized and then, after an illuminating chapter on Books and Writing he describes the ways in which time has been measured and lays down the canons for that basic historical requisite, chronology. Egypt, Babylonia, Assyria and Persia get rather short shrift since the literary sources are great neither in value nor in amount; but the author recognizes the historical value of the increasing amount of archaeological material. The chapter on Jewish history, filling about 50 pages, will captivate any reader. It is brief, sane and scholarly, and will carry conviction without offense. "Judged as historical material," says the author (p. 80), "the Old Testament stands higher today than when its text was protected with the sanctions of religion."

The section on Greek history, 82 pages in length, is chiefly taken up with comment on Herodotus, Thucydides and Polybius. To the Greeks Professor Shotwell assigns, as is usual, that beginning of "critical thought, that bold and free spirit of investigation" which mark the rise of true history. He follows the present trend of historical criticism in making Herodotus of more and Thucydides of less

importance. In speaking of the latter he grants the value of his method and his meticulous search for facts and the periodic stateliness of his style but makes the keen observation (carefully avoiding unfair comparison with moderns) that Thucydides, in thinking that "war was the one and proper subject of history," shows a narrow-mindedness which is tending to lessen him in the regard of historians. Mr. J. B. Bury, with 281 pages for his "Greek Historians" has treated them more critically and yet more sympathetically than does Professor Shotwell.

Roman history is covered in 67 pages. Tacitus is compared with Thucydides, in that both were consummate artists, but both, because of their prescientific minds—no blame to them—failed "to appreciate the importance of the commonplace and obscure." The author joins in the hue and cry which, of late years, is hard after Tacitus, and which seems to have shown that when his class or personal interests were at stake, Tacitus was unfair in his judgments. The last section of the work is entitled Christianity and History. Here Professor Shotwell in a few pages talks of the New Era and gives a very sympathetic account of the work of Origen and Eusebius.

The Germans have been in the field of the History of History for a good many years and their best work is decidedly more searching in the study of details than is Professor Shotwell's. Yet the author makes no claim that his book is a distinctly new contribution and he has in fact done more than merely clarify and summarize existing material. He has made a number of brief, subjective, critical analyses which are new and carry conviction. The reviewer sees no point in indicating a few trivial errors or in asking why this or that work does not appear in the bibliographies and no sense in sighing over the omission of things he thinks might have been included. What is here is enough for its purpose, it is well told, and both material and treatment are of the highest scholastic order.

R. V. D. MAGOFFIN.

Johns Hopkins University.

*Loyal Citizenship.* By Thomas Harrison Reed. World Book Company, Yonkers, 1922. X+333 pp. \$1.40. *Elementary Community Civics.* By R. O. Hughes. Allyn and Bacon, Boston, 1922. 449 pp. \$1.20.

*Loyal Citizenship* is, to quote from the advertisement of the book's publishers, "a textbook designed to meet the needs of any first course in Civics in junior high school grades." The book is divided into five parts, each subdivided into thirty-six topics. The titles of the parts are: 1, Social and Economic Fundamentals; 2, Fundamentals of Citizenship; 3, The Citizen and the Local Community; 4, The Citizen in State and Nation; 5, Some Problems of Larger Citizenship. About one third of the text is given over to topics dealing with government, while the other two thirds is divided among sociology, economics, and "community civics."

The author in his preface states that the course that

this text is designed to fit should give the necessary minimum of knowledge of the institutions and principles of government and society. The material he has selected to bring about this much desired result has been well chosen, but it has been crowded into the "minimum" of space. It is essentially a book of bald and unadorned facts. This may or may not be a fault. It would seem, however, in view of the fact that many of the teachers in junior high schools are not specialists in economics and sociology that a more extended treatment of the topics dealing with these subjects would have been more satisfying. The style, while clear and forceful, is not so attractive that the student will find himself carried away with the story. However, the essentials are there and if they are properly digested and assimilated they should prove to be of great benefit to the student. The book has the emphatic style, that is, the important word, phrase or sentence in each paragraph is italicized. The print is clear and easily read; the illustrations are well chosen and beautify the book. At the end of each chapter there are topics for investigation and proposed civic activities.

*Elementary Community Civics*, the latest effort of Mr. Hughes in the way of texts is not to be confused with his earlier book entitled *Community Civics*. It is designed for those schools which have adopted an outline for civic instruction in the seventh, eighth and ninth grades following the recommendation of the report of the N. E. A. Committee on Social Studies (1916). In particular, it would seem that the book is intended to appeal to teachers in Philadelphia and Pennsylvania generally for the text follows very closely the syllabi used in that city and state. Four of the fourteen chapters are given to the discussion of topics in government, and the others are divided among the following: The Citizen and the Community; Health; Protection of Life and Property; Education; Recreation; Community Planning; Transportation; and Communication; Wealth; Care of the Unfortunates; and, Promoting Right Living. Two of the chapters, Wealth and Transportation, and Communication, could be used in a short course in Economic Civics, but there is not enough material in the book for a half year's course in that subject, especially if five recitations a week are given to it.

The subject matter is well chosen and the style is entertaining. At the end of each chapter there is a list of well-chosen questions and a collection of suggested studies that are called Themes and Exercises. Scattered throughout the text, that is in the discussion proper, are to be found very clever questions of the thought-provoking kind. There are 194 illustrations in the book and they are almost uniformly interesting and well chosen. It ought to be a good book for the Pennsylvania teachers or any other teachers of Community Civics who are using an outline similar to the Philadelphia syllabus or to that prepared by the Department of Education in the state of Pennsylvania.

PHILIP DOUGHERTY.

Baltimore Polytechnic Institute.



*The Control of American Foreign Relations.* By Quincy Wright. The Macmillan Company, New York. xxvi, 412 pp. 1922.

During recent years there has been much discussion of the clauses of the American constitution relating to the control of foreign relations. At first the debate was carried on with particular reference to the police powers of the states, the issue in controversy being the anti-Japanese legislation of some of the western commonwealths. More recently the problem has been given a different orientation, for the senatorial debate on the peace treaty raised in acute form questions as to the powers of the President and of the Senate in respect to treaties. In 1919 the American Philosophical Society announced that the Henry M. Phillips prize would be awarded for the best essay submitted on the subject, "The Control of the foreign relations of the United States: the respective rights, duties, and responsibilities of the President, the Senate, the House of Representatives, and the Judiciary, in theory and practice." The prize was given to Professor Wright for his monograph which deals minutely with all of the elements of the subject as announced. The study is a technical one in constitutional and international law and the specialist will consider valuable the perscrutation of precedents and authorities. The forest of details is so great, however, that general principles and tendencies find it difficult to show their heads. The author is interested in constitutional law and not in politics. There is nothing to show who really determines our foreign relations and there is no discussion of the "control" of the day by day diplomacy of the country which is frequently just as important as treaties. This is a question of politics rather than of law, but it ought to receive consideration in a monograph on "the control of American foreign relations."

LINDSAY ROGERS.

#### BOOK NOTES

*An Advanced History of Great Britain*, by T. F. Tout (Longmans, Green & Co., New York; 1920; 795 pp., \$2.50), is a British textbook of a type now little used in the United States. It is a work of sound and thorough scholarship, packed with information chronologically arranged by years and reigns, supplied with 30 genealogical tables, chapter lists of "Chief Dates," and numerous campaign maps and battle plans. The few chapters devoted to social and economic conditions are simply interpolated in the main narrative which in the time-honored political and constitutional story. If the reader's eyes can endure the strain of the fine type, this manual might prove very useful as a work of reference.

Woodrow Wilson's well-known *Division and Reunion* appears in its 33rd impression "with additional chapters bringing the narrative down to the end of 1918," by Professor Edward S. Corwin, of Princeton. The General Bibliography (pp. viii-x) has been revised while those of the sections, badly out of date, seem to be unchanged until p. 288, and the text also stands until changes are begun in the chapter on The

War with Spain and Its Consequences. These changes, except for additions to the story, are almost invariably for the worse. Mr. Wilson's interesting and often pungent comments, and particularly his expressions of opinion, are mercilessly excised. Characterizations of McKinley and Roosevelt and high praise of Leonard Wood's Cuban administration eliminated. The new chapters on the Wilson administration and the World War, though naturally representing the official view, are moderately written and free of objectionable partisanship. It was well worth while to bring this widely-used manual to date. (Longmans, Green & Co., New York, 1893, 1921; 455 pp., \$1.25.)

"More experience and experiment have been crowded into these ten years than into all the remainder of our railroad history of nearly a century," says Professor Frank Haigh Dixon, of Princeton, in the preface of his *Railroads and Government: Their Relations in the United States, 1910-1921*. (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1922; 384 pp., \$2.25.) Such a decade of course produced numerous and lively controversies. Professor Dixon, a leading authority on railroads, has made this study from official records, and his work is thorough, scholarly, and remarkably fair. Himself an opponent of government operation and approving the Transportation Act of 1920, he is not afraid to record all facts, nor to pay tribute to the many good features and results of the Federal Railway Administration. Though intended as a college text, the book is a useful work of reference for the high school teacher.

*The Americanization of Edward Bok*, now appearing in its twentieth printing and in a new and "Popular Edition," has enjoyed immense popularity and won the Pulitzer prize for "the best American biography teaching patriotic and unselfish services to the people illustrated by an eminent example." It tells almost nothing of "Americanization" and is less a biography than a long series of anecdotes strung on a thin thread of narrative about Edward Bok and written in the third person. But these anecdotes do throw much light on Edward Bok, and sometimes on others, and the book is exceedingly readable. The author believes that luck is with those who are interested and work hard, yet he is undoubtedly right when he says (p. 130): "But Edward Bok has always felt that he was materially helped by fortuitous conditions not of his own creation or choice." The earlier part of the story reads much like a fairy tale. Youthful readers will enjoy it. (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1920, 461 pp., \$3.00.)

The new edition of *Who's Who in America* (Vol. 12, 1922-1923), edited by A. N. Marquis, appears with 3000 new sketches besides a revision to date of the others, in all about 25,000 biographical summaries of living Americans or foreigners residing here. It has won recognition as the standard work of its kind, very different in character from the numerous volumes in which any vain citizen can buy space by ordering a copy of the book or paying for the insertion of his picture. Eminent men and women in every field

of activity are included, and the notices are business-like summaries of fact (including addresses) without criticism of any kind. There is a classified list of the names by states, and a Pronouncing Vocabulary, the latter useful but needing revision—it omits "Cudahy," for example, but includes "Palmer" and "Mott." *Who's Who* ought to be much more widely used than it now is by pupils in schools and colleges, not to mention their teachers. There is ample need for it in connection with the now common study of "current events." (A. N. Marquis & Co., Chicago, 1922; 3500 pp., thin paper, \$7.50 post paid.)

*Society and Its Problems*, by Professor Grove Samuel Dow, is a thorough revision of *Introduction to the Principles of Sociology*, which appeared in 1920 from the Baylor University Press. (T. Y. Crowell Co., New York, 1922; 594 pp., \$2.75.) It is intended to give a general idea of the whole science, but devotes itself much less to principles and theories than to practical problems such as immigration, "urban migration," race friction, education, poverty, crime, etc. It is thus not to be compared with such textbooks as Ross's *Principles*, or Giddings's *Elements*, but rather with a work like Blackmar and Gillin's *Outlines*, and it is an easier book for the beginner. The present edition has been considerably revised, various errors of detail eliminated, figures from the 1920 Census incorporated, and a new chapter on Heredity added.

*History of Indiana*, by Logan, Esarey, Harcourt, Brace & Co., New York, 1922, xii, 362 pp. This textbook in Indiana history is admirably adapted to meet the ends for which it was written. It contains a well organized, simple and accurate account. There is no striving after effect by dwelling upon the unusual. The truth is interesting enough. The text contains a few extremely useful maps and many illustrations that really illustrate. The legends accompanying the illustrations usually sufficiently explain and identify them. The reprint in full at the end of each chapter of a well chosen document helps to carry the mind of the reader closer to events and times described.—A. L. KOHLMEIER.

Our American experience in settling controversies between somewhat sovereign states by lawsuits in the Supreme Court has been accurately and succinctly reviewed in Mr. Herbert A. Smith's "The American Supreme Court as an International Tribunal" (Oxford University Press, New York, 1920, viii, 123 pp.), with a view to the lessons offered for the more ambitious enterprise of a Supreme Court of the World with jurisdiction to arbitrate between the states which now have to compose their difficulties by diplomatic jockeying or by appeal to Mars. Mr. Smith sees that we cannot hope for much from an international tribunal unless we have a definite and written system of international law drawn up by agreement of the members of a new world organization. There must be a law to enforce before there is a court to enforce it. Thus Mr. Smith warns us against delusive analogues. His judgments as well as his recital are to be commended.—T. R. POWELL.

## Books on History and Government Published in the United States from Sept. 30, to Oct. 28, 1922

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH. D.  
AMERICAN HISTORY

- Adams, Chas. K. and Trent, W. P. A history of the United States. Boston: Allyn and Bacon. 572 pp. \$2.00.  
Bolton, Herbert E. and Adams, Ephraim D. California's Story [history]. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. 216 pp. \$1.20.  
Bradlee, Francis B. C. The eastern railroad; a historical account of early railroading in eastern New England. Salem, Mass.: Essex Institute. 122 pp.  
Brooks, E. S. The true story of the United States of America [revised edition]. Boston: Lothrop, Lee & Shepherd. 305 pp. \$2.00.  
Capper, Arthur. The agricultural bloc. N. Y.: Harcourt, Brace & Co. 171 pp. \$1.50.  
Cleland, Robert G. A history of California; the American period. N. Y.: Macmillan. 512 pp. \$4.00.  
Corman, Samuel E. Our republic. N. Y.: Century Co. 851 pp. (2½ p. bibl.). \$5.00.  
Hutchins, Frank & Costelle. Virginia, the old dominion. Boston: Page Co. 299 pp. \$5.00.  
Lamprey, Louise. Days of the Colonists. N. Y.: Stokes. 283 pp. \$2.50.  
Lyman, Col. Theodore. Meade's headquarters, 1863-1865. Boston: Atlantic Monthly Press. 371 pp. \$4.00.  
Fleming, George T. History of Pittsburgh and environs from prehistoric days to the beginning of the American Revolution. In 6 vols. N. Y.: American Historical Society. \$37.50.  
Morrison, S. E. A prologue to American history. N. Y.: Oxford University Press. 32 pp. 50c.  
Pettigrew, Richard F. Imperial Washington; the story of American public life from 1870 to 1920. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. 441 pp. \$1.25.  
Rolt-Wheeler, Francis W. The coming of the peoples. N. Y.: Doran. 267 pp. \$1.50.  
Rother, Otto Arthur. The Filson club and its activities 1884-1922. Louisville, Ky.: J. P. Morton & Co. 64 pp.  
Sawyer, Joseph D. History of the Pilgrims and Puritans. In 3 vols. N. Y.: Century Hist. Co., 8 W. 47th St. Set, \$39.50.  
Turner, Frederick J. and Merk, Frederick. List of references on the history of the West. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press. 156 pp. \$1.50.

### ANCIENT HISTORY

- Chiera, Edward. Selected temple accounts from Telloh, Yokha and Drehem. Princeton, N. J.: Princeton University Press. 35 pp. 75c.  
Kummer, Frederick A. The first days of man [for young readers]. N. Y.: Doran. 293 pp. \$2.00.  
Maspero, Sir G. C. C. The dawn of civilization, Egypt and Chaldea. N. Y.: Macmillan. 800 pp. \$9.00.  
Matheson, P. E. The growth of Rome. N. Y.: Oxford University Press. 96 pp. \$1.00.  
Myers, Philip V. A short history of ancient times [rev. edition]. Boston: Ginn & Co. 276 pp. \$1.40.  
Newman, J. B. Beginners ancient history; from earliest times. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co. 173 pp. 96c.

### ENGLISH HISTORY

- Blunt, Wilfred S. Secret history of the British occupation of Egypt. N. Y.: Knopf. 416 pp. \$5.00.  
Rowell, Newton W. The British Empire and world peace. N. Y.: Oxford University Press. 307 pp. \$3.50.

### EUROPEAN HISTORY

- Glover, William. Brief history of modern Europe from 1814 to the Great War. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co. 230 pp. \$1.20.  
Lanson, René, and Desseignnet, Jules. La France et sa civilisation de la révolution à nos jours. N. Y.: Holt. 296 pp. (9 p. bibl.) 96c.  
Newman, J. B. Beginners modern history; from about A. D. 1000. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co. 160 pp. 96c.

- Oechsli, Wilhelm. *History of Switzerland, 1499-1914*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 480 pp. (15 p. bibl.). \$6.50.  
 Stephens, Winifred. *Women of the French Revolution*. N. Y.: Dutton. 287 pp. \$5.00.

## THE WORLD WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION

- Beard, Charles A. *Cross-currents in Europe today*. Boston: M. Jones. 278 pp. (2 p. bibl.). \$2.50.  
 Mills, J. S. *The Genoa Conference*. N. Y.: Dutton. 436 pp. \$8.00.  
 Nitti, Francesco. *The wreck of Europe*. Indianapolis, Ind.: Bobbs-Merrill. 304 pp. \$2.50.  
 Raleigh, Sir Walter. *The war in the air [The Royal Air Force in the World War] Vol. I*. N. Y.: Oxford University Press. 490 pp. \$7.00.

## MIDDLEVAL HISTORY

- Gebhart, Emile. *Mystics and heretics in Italy at the end of the Middle Ages*. N. Y.: G. E. Stechert. 283 pp. \$4.00.  
 Wilmont-Buxton, E. M. *The story of the Crusades*. N. Y.: Crowell. 286 pp. \$1.75.

## MISCELLANEOUS

- Aldis, Harry G. *The University library, Cambridge [England] Helps for students of history, No. 46*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 31 pp. 20c.  
 Barnes, Harry E. *History: Its Rise and Development*. Reprint. Worcester, Mass., the Author.  
 Lee, Mabel Ping Hua. *The economic history of China*. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 187 pp. (5 p. bibl.). \$7.75.  
 Wood, Eric. *Famous voyages of the great discoverers [for young people]*. N. Y.: Crowell. 270 pp. \$1.75.

## BIOGRAPHY

- White, Stewart E. *Daniel Boone, wilderness scout*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday Page. 308 pp. \$1.75.  
 Schaff, Morris. *Jefferson Davis; his life and personality*. Boston: John W. Luce & Co. 277 pp. \$3.00.  
 Watson, Virginia C. *With La Salle, the explorer*. N. Y.: Holt. 366 pp. \$3.50.  
 Mazzini, Giuseppe. *Mazzini's letters to an English family, 1855-1860*. In 3 vols. Vol. 2 and 3. N. Y.: John Lane. 293, 324 pp. Each \$5.00.  
 Hendrick, Burton J. *The life and letters of Walter H. Page*. In 2 vols. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Page. 436, 437 pp. Set, \$10.00.  
 Trissal, Francis M. *Public Men of Indiana; a political history from 1860-1890*. Hammond, Ind.: 226 pp. \$2.00.  
 Thayer, William R. *George Washington*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. 274 pp. \$3.50.

## GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS

- Ashley, Roscoe L. *The practice of citizenship*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 466 pp. (10½ p. bibl.). \$1.48.  
 Hughes, Ray O. *Problems of American Democracy*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. 616 pp. \$1.60.  
 Jens, J. W. and Smith, R. D. *We and our government*. N. Y.: Boni & Liveright. 223 pp. \$2.00.  
 Niblack, Albert P. *Why wars come*. Boston: Stratford Pub. Co. 165 pp. \$1.50.  
 Ostrogorski, M. *Democracy and the organization of political parties*. In two vols. N. Y.: Macmillan. 627, 793 pp. Set, \$8.00.  
 Thorpe, Francis N. *The essentials of American government*. N. Y.: Putnam. 190 pp. \$1.75.  
 Wright, Quincy. *The control of American foreign relations*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 412 pp. \$3.25.

## Historical Articles in Current Periodicals

COMPILED BY LEO F. STOCK

## GENERAL AND MISCELLANEOUS

- An Apology for Historical Research. A. F. Pollard (*History*, October).  
 Are History and Science Different Kinds of Knowledge? Symposium by R. G. Collingwood, A. E. Taylor, F. C. S. Schiller (*Mind*, October).  
 Ancient Religions of China. Rev. C. Waldtlow (*New China Review*, August).  
 The Historical Setting of Chinkiang (concluded). W. J. Clennell (*New China Review*, August).

- Rise of Imams of Sanaa. A. S. Tritton (*Journal of Indian History*, September).

- Marsiglio of Padua. I. C. Kenneth Brampton (*English Historical Review*, October).

- Some Famous War-Horses of Famous Leaders. Garrett B. Drummond (*Cavalry Journal*, July).

- Quakerism. Herbert G. Wood (*Edinburgh Review*, October).

- The Struggle for the Right of Association in Fourteenth-Century Florence. Niccolò Rodolico (*History*, October).

- The Domestic Organisation of France under the Consulate and the Empire. Mrs. Milton Broad (*Parents' Review*, October).

- The Suppression of Piracy in the West Indies, 1820-1832. Francis B. C. Bradlee (*Essex Institute Historical Collections*, October).

- Lott Cary, the Colonizing Missionary. Miles M. Fisher (*Journal of Negro History*, October).

- The Policy of France. André Tardieu (*Foreign Affairs*, September).

- The Tacna-Arica Controversy. Edwin M. Borchard (*Foreign Affairs*, September).

## THE BRITISH EMPIRE

- Council, Star Chamber, and Privy Council under the Tudors. A. F. Pollard (*English Historical Review*, October). II. The Star Chamber.

- The Public Records of Scotland. J. H. Stevenson (*Scottish Historical Review*, October).

- The "Domesday" Roll of Chester. R. Stewart-Brown (*English Historical Review*, October).

- A Letter to Scotland from the Council of Basel. R. K. Hannay (*Scottish Historical Review*, October).

- Henry V. of England in France, 1415-1422. I. M. U. Muir Wilson (*Scottish Historical Review*, October).

- Five Letters of James I. E. W. M. Balfour-Melville (*Scottish Historical Review*, October).

- Anglo-Portuguese Negotiations relating to Bombay, 1660-1677. Shabaat Ahmad Khan (*Journal of Indian History*, September).

- Jamaica, Past and Present. T. H. MacDermot (*Dalhousie Review*, October).

- The Orkney Pennylands. J. Storer Clouston (*Scottish Historical Review*, October).

- The Admiral of Scotland. A. R. G. McMillan (*Scottish Historical Review*, October).

- Vicissitudes of a Loyalist City. J. P. Edwards (*Dalhousie Review*, October). Roseway, later Shelbourne.

- Anne, Lady Bacon. Mary B. Whiting (*Contemporary Review*, October).

- Canadian Negroes and the Rebellion of 1837. Fred Landon (*Journal of Negro History*, October).

- The Murat of the Marathas. Demetrius C. Boulger (*Army Quarterly*, October). The story of Jeswunt Rao Holkar in India.

- India and British Imperialism. Alleyne Ireland (*Century*, November).

- English Agriculture since 1914. Reginald Lennard (*Journal of Political Economy*, October).

- Mr. Lloyd George: a Page of History. Algernon Cecil (*Quarterly Review*, October).

## THE GREAT WAR AND ITS PROBLEMS

- The British Cavalry in Palestine and Syria. Lieut.-Col. Edward Davis (*Cavalry Journal*, April, July).

- The Marvellous Adventures of the (British) First Division. H. M. B. Salmon (*Nineteenth Century and After*, October).

- The Action at Saidabad, Persia, September 28, 1917. Capt. John N. Merrill (*Cavalry Journal*, July).

- With No. 2 Column: German East Africa, 1917. Brig.-Gen. R. T. Ridgway (*Army Quarterly*, October).

- The Defense of Adadeh. Brig.-Gen. Sir Percy Sykes (*Blackwood's*, October).

- The Role Played by the Serbian Cavalry in the World War. Capt. Gordon Gordon-Smith (*Cavalry Journal*, July).

- The Offensive of March, 1918. Commandant Toussan (*Cavalry Journal*, July). Translated from *Revue Militaire*, March.



- The Neutrality of Switzerland. Pleasant A. Stovall (*Georgia Historical Quarterly*, September).  
 The Students' Army Training Corps. John H. Wigmore (*Educational Record*, October).  
 German Diplomacy Revealed. William H. Dawson (*Contemporary Review*, October).  
 The German War Records and War History. (*Army Quarterly*, October). From *Berliner Tageblatt*.  
 Notes on Foreign (non-British) War Books. (*Army Quarterly*, October).

## UNITED STATES AND DEPENDENCIES

- Raleigh's Narrative of Guiana. Edgar L. Pennington (*South Atlantic Quarterly*, October).  
 The Pilgrim Fathers. J. A. Williamson (*History*, October). An historical revision.  
 George Washington's Boyhood. Charles Moore (*D. A. R. Magazine*, November).  
 George Croghan and the Westward Movement, 1741-1782. A. T. Volwiler (*Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography*, October).  
 A Psychological Study of Samuel Adams. Ralph V. Harlow (*Psychoanalytic Review*, October).  
 Seals of the Executive Departments. Isabel L. Smith (*D. A. R. Magazine*, November).  
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# INDEX

## THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, VOLUME XIII

*Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine*

JANUARY-DECEMBER, 1922

- Adjustments between History and the Other Social Studies, 78-90.
- Ahl, F. N., Objectives and Methods in History, 211.
- Almack, J. C., What to Teach in History, 176.
- American Historical Association, St. Louis Meeting, 73; Conference upon History and Other Social Studies, 78; Officers and Committees, 180.
- American History, The Immigrant in, 193.
- American Political Science Association, Report of Committee on the Study of Civics, 42.
- Analogy, A Problem in Historical, 153.
- Another Shot at Mr. Wells, 233.
- Atwood, W. W., Characteristic Elements of Geography, 332.
- Barnard, J. L., Pennsylvania Program of the Social Studies, 337.
- Barnes, H. E., Syllabus in Recent Tendencies and Problems in the Study and Interpretation of History, 90; The Significance of Sociology for the New or Synthetic History, 277.
- Bockstahler, O. L., General Course in European History in Illinois High Schools, 174.
- Bodenhafer, W. B., Discussion of Significance of Sociology for Synthetic History, 302.
- Bonham, M. L., Jr., College Course in United States History from Another Viewpoint, 14.
- Book Reviews, 28, 64, 102, 140, 184, 220, 262, 306, 361. For alphabetical list of authors whose works have been received, see the last columns of this index.
- Brown, A. V., Ghandi and His Policy, 123.
- Bryce, The Holy Roman Empire, Estimate of, 125.
- Bush, R. H., The History and Social Science Curriculum of the Joliet Township High School, 133.
- Butler, S. B., Need for Organization and Common Terminology, 170.
- China, Compared with United States, 153.
- Chinese History, as a Field for Research, by K. S. Latourette, 13; Oriental History in High School, by T. Smith, 208.
- Citizenship, Training for, in Higher Education, 37; Projects in Citizenship, 50; See also Government.
- Civics, The Study of, Report of Committee of American Political Science Association, 42.
- Class-Room Helps, Use of Maps, 17; Tests, 12, 19; Reference Studies, 20, 59, 96; Projects, 50, 208-219, 259; Dramatization, 136; Grading Pupils' Work, 173; Devices for Teacher, 178; Pupil Management of Class Activities, 256.
- College Courses in History and Social Studies, in United States History, 14; Higher Education and Training for Citizenship, 37; Outline Syllabus in the Study and Interpretation of History, 90; World History Course, 196; Columbia College Course on Contemporary Civilization, 204.
- Columbia College Course in Contemporary Civilization, 204.
- Contemporary Civilization, Columbia College Course in, 204.
- Coss, J. J., Columbia College Course in Contemporary Civilization, 204.
- Coulomb, Charles A., Lists of Recent Historical Publications, 29, 65, 142, 185, 225, 262, 310, 364.
- Courses of Study, Survey of New, 321.
- Curriculum in History and Social Science in Joliet, Ill., 133.
- Curti, M. E., Literature in the Synthetic Study of History, 127.
- Dawson, Edgar, The National Council Again, 46; Announcement as Secretary, 139; Preparation of Secondary School Teachers of the Social Studies, 158; Editor of December Number, 313; Characteristic Elements of Government, 328.
- Dever, Mary, Dramatization as an Aid to History Teaching, 136.
- Devices for the History Teacher, 178.
- Dramatization, in Classes in Social Studies, 56; as an Aid to History Teaching, 136.
- Dutcher, G. M., A Problem of Historical Analogy, 153.
- Economic Relations of England and Ireland, 235.
- Economics, Characteristic Elements of, 329.
- Ericksson, E. McK., League of Nations at Work, 5.
- European History, Reference Studies for Early, 20, 59, 96; General Course in Illinois, 174.
- Examinations in Social Studies, 326.
- Experiment in Practical Civics, 216.
- Finney, R. L., Characteristic Elements of Sociology, 331.
- Gambrill, J. Montgomery, Editor of Department of Book Reviews, 28, 64, 102, 140, 184, 220, 262, 306, 361.
- Geography, Relation to the Social Studies, 154; Characteristic Elements of, 332, 335.
- Ghandi and His Policy, 123.
- Giddings, F. H., Educational Value of Sociology, 332.
- Gillespie, J. E., Discussion of Significance of Sociology for Synthetic History, 304.
- Glass, J. M., European History Not in Ninth Year, 246.
- Government, Characteristic Elements of, 328.
- Government, Teaching of, Written Test for Civics Problem, 19; Report of Committee of American Political Science Association, 42; Projects in Citizenship, 50; Experiment in Practical Civics, 216; Civic Project, 259; see also Social Studies.
- Grading the Pupils' Work, 173.
- Griffin, E., The Window of World History, and the Educational Vista, 196.
- Hahn, H. H., Communication on Standard Tests, 12.
- Handman, M. S., Discussion of Significance of Sociology for Synthetic History, 300.
- Hartwig, C. E., Place of the Social Studies in the High Schools of Missouri, 339.
- Hatch, R. W., Projects in Citizenship, 50.
- Haun, H. L., Progressive Tendencies of State History Teaching in the Elementary Grades, 342; Present Status of State History Teaching, 346.
- Hayes, E. C., Characteristic Elements of Sociology, 331.
- Higher Education and Training for Citizenship, 37.
- High School Civic Project, 259.
- High School, History in Junior and Senior, 246-250.
- Hill, H. C., The Woodland Indians, 119; Pupil Management of Class Activities, 256; Attainable Program of Social Studies for the High School, 353.
- Historical Articles in Current Periodicals, 30, 66, 144, 186, 226, 265, 310, 365.
- History, Relation to the Other Social Studies, 78-90; Study and Interpretation of, Syllabus in, 90; in Junior and Senior High School, 246-250; Characteristic Elements of, 327.
- History Teacher, Library for High School, 130.
- Hoskins, H. L., Notes on Professional Cold-Storage, 205.

# INDEX TO THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, VOL. XIII

- Illinois, General Course in European History in High Schools of, 174.
- Immigrant in American History, 193.
- India, Ghandi and His Policy, 123.
- Indians, Woodland, 119.
- Iowa, Syllabus on American History in, 41.
- Irby, Louise, Adjustments Between History and Other Social Studies, 87.
- Ireland, Economic Relations to England, 235.
- Johnson, H., Characteristic Elements of History, 327.
- Joliet, Ill., History and Social Science Curriculum, 133.
- Junior High School, History in, 246-250.
- Kilpatrick, W. H., What Shall We Seek from a History Project? 215.
- Knowlton, D. C., Relation of Geography to the Social Studies, 154.
- Lambert, J. B., A High School Civic Project, 259.
- Lange, A. F., Teachers for Democracy, 356.
- Latourette, K. S., Chinese History as a Field of Research, 13.
- League of Nations at Work, 5.
- Leonard, A. R., Grading the Pupils' Work, 173.
- Lewis, W. D., History as a Preparation for Citizenship, 247.
- Lingo, W. R., Reference Studies in Oriental and Early European History, 20, 59, 96.
- Literature in the Synthetic Study of History, 127.
- Maps, Use of, in History Teaching, 17.
- Marshall, L. C., Characteristic Elements of Economics, 329.
- Maryland, State Manual for High School History Teachers, 27.
- Methods and Objectives in History, 211.
- Methods of Teaching Social Studies, 323.
- Middle States Association of History Teachers, 140.
- Milwaukee State Normal School, Student Participation in History, 219.
- Missouri, Place of Social Studies in High Schools, 339.
- Mowbray, R. H., A Written Test for a Civics Problem, 19.
- National Council for the Social Studies, Field of, 46; Progress of, 107; Annual Meeting, 49, 137; Announcement of Secretary, 139; Plans of, 317; Reports and Papers of, 321-356.
- Need for Organization and for a Common Terminology in the Social Studies, 170.
- New York City, Report on History Textbooks used in, 250.
- Notes on Professional Cold-Storage, 205.
- Objectives and Methods in History, 211.
- O'Brien, S. G., An Experiment in Practical Civics, 216.
- Oriental History, Research in Chinese History, 13; in High School, 208.
- Pennsylvania Program of the Social Studies, 337.
- Periodical Literature, Notes on, 261.
- Periodicals, Historical Articles in Current, 30, 66, 144, 186, 226, 265, 310, 365.
- Philadelphia Conference on History in Junior and Senior High School, 246-250.
- Pierce, Bessie L., Adjustments Between History and Other Social Studies, 86.
- Pope, The Passing of, and Making a New One, 113.
- Practical Civics, Experiment in, 216.
- Professional Library for High School History Teacher, 130.
- Problem of Historical Analogy, 153.
- Program, An Attainable, for Social Studies in High School, 353.
- Project-Problems, 19, 50, 208-220, 256, 259.
- Publications, Recent Historical, Lists of, 29, 65, 142, 185, 225, 262, 310, 364.
- Pupil Management of Class Activities, 256.
- Recent Historical Publications, Lists of, 29, 65, 142, 185, 225, 262, 310, 364.
- Richards, G. B., The Passing of a Pope and the Making of a New One, 113; Notes on Periodical Literature, 261.
- Rippy, J. F., Discussion of Significance of Sociology for Synthetic History, 300.
- Schoch, P., Place of European History in Junior and Senior High Schools, 249.
- Secondary Schools, History and Social Studies in, see Every Number, but especially: Class-Room Helps, 17-27; the Study of Civics, 42; Projects in, 50, 208-219, 259; Reference Studies for Oriental and Early European History, 20, 59, 96; Adjustments Between History and Other Social Studies, 78; Literature and History, 127; Professional Library, 130; Curriculum in Joliet (Ill.), 133; Dramatization in, 136; Preparation of Teachers for, 158; Suggestions for Teachers, 170-179; Oriental History in, 211; History in Junior and Senior High Schools, 246; Textbooks in New York City Schools, 250; Pupil Management of Class Activities, 256; Hopeful Experiments, 321; Elements of Social Studies in, 327-337; Pennsylvania Program, 337; Missouri Conditions, 339; the Teaching of State History, 342; Attainable Program, 353; Teachers for Democracy, 356.
- Senior High School, History in, 246-250.
- Significance of Sociology for the "New" or Synthetic History, 277-306.
- Smith, J. R., Characteristic Elements of Geography, 335.
- Smith, Thora, Oriental History in High School, 208.
- Socialized Recitations, 50, 136, 208-220, 256, 259.
- Social Studies, Adjustments Between History and Other Social Studies, 78; History and Social Science in Joliet (Ill.) High School, 133; Relation of Geography to, 154; Preparation of Secondary Teachers of, 158; Suggestions for Teachers of, 170-179; Significance of Sociology to History, 277; Characteristic Elements of, 327; Pennsylvania Program of, 337; in Missouri High Schools, 339; Attainable Program of, 353; Teachers for, 356. See also National Council.
- Sociology, Significance for New or Synthetic History, 277-306; Characteristic Elements of, 331, 332.
- State History, Progressive Tendencies in, 342; Present Status of, 346.
- Stock, Leo F., Historical Articles in Current Periodicals, 30, 66, 144, 186, 226, 265, 310, 365.
- Student Participation in History, 219.
- Teachers, Preparation of Secondary School, in Social Studies, 158; Teachers for Democracy, 356; Devices for the History Teacher, 178.
- Terminology, in Social Studies, Need for Common, 170.
- Tests, Standard, 12; for Civics Problems, 19, 173.
- Textbooks, Report on History, Used in New York City Schools, 250.
- Thompson, J. W., Bryce's Holy Roman Empire, 125.
- Thorndike, L., Another Shot at Mr. Wells, 233.
- Tryon, R. M., Adjustments Between History and the Other Social Studies, 78; the Professional Library of the High School History Teacher, 130.
- Use of Maps in History Teaching, by E. G. Martin, 17.
- Violette, E. M., Adjustments Between History and Other Social Studies, 83.
- Wells, H. G., History Used as College Text, 196; Another Shot at, 233.
- What Shall We Seek from a History Project? 215.
- What to Teach in History? 176.
- Window of World History, 196.
- Wittke, C., The Immigrant in American History, 193.
- Woellner, F. P., Should European History Be Taught in Junior High School, 246.
- Woodland Indians, 119.
- World History, The Window of, 196.
- Written Test for a Civics Problem, by R. H. Mowbray, 19.
- Zook, G. F., Higher Education and Training for Citizenship, 37; Economic Relations of England and Ireland, 235.

# INDEX TO THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, VOL. XIII

Books Reviewed, arranged alphabetically by authors' names:—

- Adams, J. T., *The Foundations of New England*, 361.
- Ames, F., Jr., *American Red Cross Work Among the French People*, 307.
- Barnes, H. E., *The Social History of the Western World*, 308.
- Berdan, J. M., *Early Tudor Poetry, 1485-1547*, 105.
- Bok, E., *The Americanization of Edward Bok*, 363.
- Bond, B. W., Jr., *The Quit-Rent System in the American Colonies*, 65.
- Botsford, G. W., *Hellenic History*, 307.
- Bowman, I., *The New World*, 224.
- Brown, C. R., *Lincoln, the Greatest Man of the Nineteenth Century*, 306.
- Browne, W. R., *What's What in the Labor Movement*, 141.
- Bryce, James, *Modern Democracies*, 103.
- Bulkeley, J. P., *The British Empire, A Short History*, 263.
- Burch, H. R., *American Economic Life*, 264.
- Burch, H. R. and S. H. Patterson, *Problems of American Democracy*, 264.
- Bywater, H. C., *Sea Power in the Pacific*, 185.
- Chafee, Z., Jr., *Freedom of Speech*, 223.
- Clapham, J. H., *The Economic Development of France and Germany*, 308.
- Clarke, C. U., *Greater Roumania*, 221.
- Commons, J. R., *Races and Immigrants in America*, new ed., 64.
- Commons, J. R., ed., *Trade Unionism and Labor Problems*, 2nd series, 220.
- Cross, A. L., *A Shorter History of England and Greater Britain*, 28.
- David, C. W., *Robert Curthose, Duke of Normandy*, 64.
- Dixon, F. H., *Railroads and Government*, 363.
- Dow, G. S., *Society and Its Problems*, 364.
- Drinkwater, J., *Lincoln, the World Emancipator*, 306.
- Eckel, E. C., *Coal, Iron and War*, 64.
- Esarey, L., *History of Indiana*, 364.
- Fassett, C. M., *Handbook of Municipal Government*, 266; *Assets of the Ideal City*, 266.
- Finch, C. E., *Everyday Civics*, 224.
- Flemming, J. H., ed., *England Under the Lancastrians*, 265.
- Foster, E. A., *Le dernier Sejour de J.-J. Rousseau à Paris*, 309.
- Fox, D. R., ed., *Harper's Atlas of American History*, 64.
- Frank, T., *An Economic History of Rome to the End of the Republic*, 222.
- Friday, D., *Profits, Wages, and Prices*, 224.
- Harper's *Atlas of American History*, 64.
- Hill, H. C., *Community Life and Civic Problems*, 221.
- Hodgdon, J. R., *The Enchanted Past*, 264.
- Hughes, R. O., *Elementary Community Civics*, 362.
- James, H. R., *Our Hellenic Heritage*, Vol. I, 105.
- Kawakami, K. K., *What Japan Thinks*, 185.
- Kermack, W. R., *The Expansion of Britain*, 263.
- Kier, M., *Manufacturing Industries in America*, 224.
- Korff, Baron S. A., *Russia's Foreign Relations*, 307.
- Krey, A. C., *The First Crusade*, 28.
- Lamprey, L., *Days of the Discoverers*, 223.
- Lord, A., *Plymouth and the Pilgrims*, 265.
- Lorvie, R. H., *Primitive Society*, 222.
- Marquis, A. N., ed., *Who's Who in America*, 363.
- McCormac, E. I., *James K. Polk, A Political Biography*, 263.
- Mendelsohn, S., *Labor's Crisis*, 266.
- Mills, J., *Within the Atom*, 266.
- "Modern Library Series," 185.
- Montague, F. C., *Elements of English Constitutional History*, new ed., 64.
- Moore, Charles, Daniel H. Burnham, Architect, *Planner of Cities*, 184.
- Morgan, W. T., *English Political Parties and Leaders in the Reign of Queen Anne*, 223.
- Mowat, R. B., *A New History of Great Britain*, 104.
- Mowat, B. B., *Henry V.*, 29.
- Osgood, E. L., *A History of Industry*, 308.
- Paget, H., ed., *Bradford's History of the Plymouth Plantation*, 65.
- Paneretoff, S., *Near Eastern Affairs and Conditions*, 184.
- Park, R. E. and E. W. Burgess, *Introduction to the Science of Sociology*, 220.
- Paton, L. B., *Spiritualism and the Cult of the Dead in Antiquity*, 309.
- Paxson, F. L., *Recent History of the United States*, 105.
- Postgate, R. W., *Revolution from 1789 to 1906*, 106.
- Radosavljevich, P. R., *Who Are the Slavs?* 104.
- Ransome, C., *A Short History of England*, new ed., 104.
- Reed, T. H., *Loyal Citizenship*, 362.
- Riley, F. K., *General Robert E. Lee After Appomattox*, 223.
- Robinson, J. H., *The Mind in the Making*, 140.
- Robinson, J. H. and C. A. Beard, *History of Europe, Our Own Times*, 103.
- Robinson, J. H. and J. H. Breasted, *A General History of Europe*, 103; *History of Europe, Ancient and Medieval*, 103.
- Ruhl, A., *New Masters of the Baltic*, 222.
- Schevill, F., *Political History of Modern Europe*, new ed., 223.
- Seybolt, R. F., trans. *The Manuale Scholarium*, 64.
- Shotwell, J. T., *An Introduction to the History of History*, 361.
- Smith, H. A., *The American Supreme Court as an International Tribunal*, 364.
- Stephenson, N. W. and M. T. Stephenson, *A School History of the United States*, 220.
- Strachey, L., *Queen Victoria*, 224.
- Tarbell, I. M., *Boy Scouts' Life of Lincoln*, 306.
- Thornley, I. D., ed., *England Under the Yorkists*, 265.
- Tout, T. F., *An Advanced History of Great Britain*, 363.
- Turberville, A. S., *Medieval Heresy and the Inquisition*, 224.
- Turner, E. R., *Europe, 1779-1920*, 106.
- Van Metre, T. W., *Economic History of the United States*, 221.
- Van Schaick, J., Jr., *The Little Corner Never Conquered*, 307.
- Vast, H., *Little History of the Great War*, 65.
- Waters, C. M., *A School Economic History of England*, Vol. I, 308.
- Webster, Hutton, *World History*, 184.
- Weeks, R., trans. *Vast's Little History of the Great War*, 65.
- Wells, L. R., *Industrial History of the United States*, 262.
- Williamson, T. R., *Problems in American Democracy*, 264.
- Wilmot-Buxton, E. M., *A Social History of England*, 308.
- Wilson, W., *Division and Reunion*, new ed., 363.
- Woodburn, J. A. and T. F. Moran, *The Citizen and the Republic*, new ed., 224.
- Wright, Q., *The Control of American Foreign Relations*, 363.
- Wyatt-Davies, E., *A History of England*, new ed., 104; *An Elementary History of England*, new ed., 104.
- Yerkes, R. M., *The New World of Science*, 266.
- Zimand, S., *Modern Social Movements*, 224.





